

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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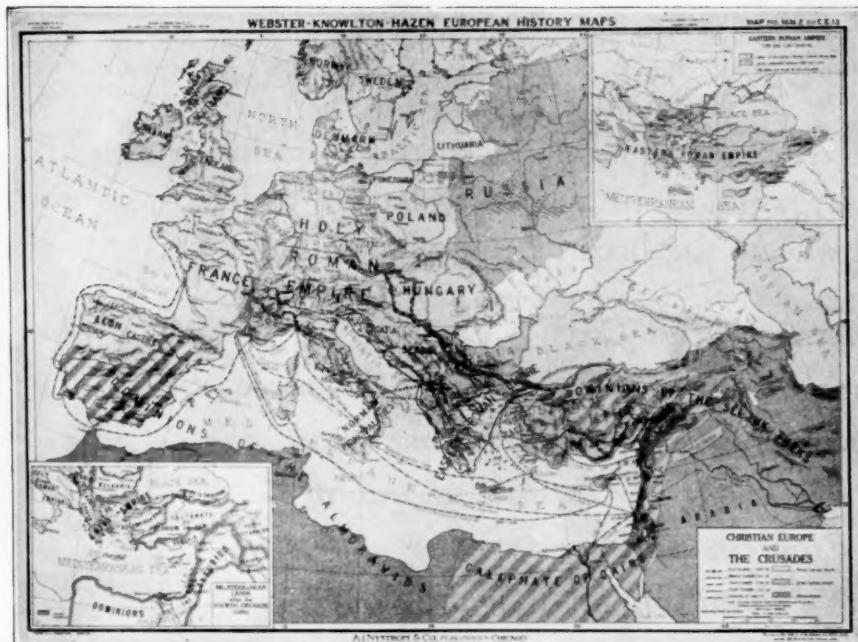
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Another Shot At Mr. Wells

BY PROFESSOR LYNN THORNDIKE, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

This article will take the attitude that *The Outline of History* by H. G. Wells has already been sufficiently lauded by professed historians and others, while what seem to the present writer certain fundamental deficiencies have not been emphasized enough. The classicists, it is true, have been rather severe upon Mr. Wells, but to my knowledge his book has not been criticized from the standpoint of one interested in the Middle Ages and in the history of science and civilization. While I shall thus limit myself here to what I regard as weak points of the *Outline*, I wish at the start to testify that I have read portions of it (usually not, however, those dealing with the Middle Ages) with the heartiest enjoyment.

Mr. Wells's qualifications as a historian are doubtless superior to his qualifications as a lawyer or an architect, since he owns to "a temperamental lack of appreciation"¹ of the law, and since he gives no sign of having ever scrutinized a building with a thought to its structure² or its value as reflecting social needs and aspirations. Nevertheless he lacks the technical training requisite in the historian as well as in the lawyer or the architect. The notion that anyone who can write can write history, and that anyone who can read can study history is a very fallacious one. It is also very true, however, that the historian ought to know a little of everything, and this qualification Mr. Wells may seem at first sight to possess more than some professed historical students. His biological training is certainly an asset. But what about the law and architecture?

Mr. Wells also lacks that direct contact with and comprehension of the original sources, whether documentary or monumental, which the historian should have. Consequently, except in the case of comparatively simple beings like Neanderthal man, Asiatic nomads, and Gypsies, he fails to comprehend the mentality of the peoples of the various ages described or adequately to sympathize with their ideals and difficulties. This is not because he is lacking either in sympathetic imagination or in shrewd intuition. As a matter of fact he possesses these essentials of the historian in a very high degree. It is because in most cases he has neither read their writings nor examined their handiwork. Thus his history as a whole labors under much the same difficulty as his account of China; he writes, as it were, without knowing the language. No matter how extensively he may have read—and his citations do not indicate very extensive reading—his information is received not merely second-hand, but probably fifth or sixth hand. At best he cannot be more than a

compiler from and critic of historians rather than a historian himself. And he is too dependent upon, nay rather at the mercy of, the very writers whose treatment of history he is attempting to reform. He would build a new house but he uses their bricks and their foundations. Furthermore, to change the figure, he seems to me to view history from the outside as an onlooker; he does not get himself or his readers inside the past. He stands outside the past and criticizes it. Considering this fundamental defect, it is really surprising how intelligent is his grasp of the subject-matter, how sound in many ways his plan of organization, how sane in many cases his judgments, although he is undoubtedly too free with them.

But Mr. Wells has another serious defect as a historian, and this is not inaccuracy in the statement of fact, which in the third edition at least is much less than might have been feared in such a work, but omission of important matters and over-emphasis upon others. And this again is not merely the frequent introduction of picturesque and sensational detail of a trivial sort to satisfy the motley appetite of the general reader without serious purpose or concentration. The trouble rather seems to be that Mr. Wells has given little thought to the apportioning of his space; he reiterates needlessly certain points that impress him and omits entirely others that should be included.

A striking instance of this is the partiality shown toward nomads and the almost total neglect of the later history of art and the arts, whether fine or industrial. Mr. Wells's sentimental and romantic attachment to the nomads and his emphasis upon their "restlessness" seems to me extraordinary. I should say that a nomad lives more in a rut and is more the slave of his environment than almost anyone else. I should sooner expect "the boldness of scientific inquiry" (p. 1097) from a bagman than from a nomad. The Turk has the typical nomadic frame of mind and he takes no intellectual interest in anything.

It is not altogether surprising that a popular author and "best seller" should over-estimate "cheap books" as a chief aim and end of mankind and animadvert over and over again upon the clumsiness of Chinese script. But it is less easy to see why his oft expressed faith in popular education should be so strictly limited to book-learning and neglect art and music as means of education. Yet Mr. Wells knows that drawing is older than writing, even if he has not heard of sensory-motor education,

It would not be quite so bad, if Mr. Wells had omitted art and music entirely from his *Outline*, since in that case his presentation, while one-sided, would be less misleading. But he treats of such matters with some fulness in the prehistoric and primitive periods only to neglect their later development. So that even if we agreed with him that "Artistic productions, unlike philosophical thought and scientific discovery, are the ornaments and expression rather than the creative substance of history,"—and we certainly do not agree,—we should still find it hard to explain why the only music mentioned in his index³ is that of Neolithic man; why he does not so much as name Shakespeare, when he can pause to discuss at some length the reputed blindness of Homer; and why Stonehenge receives seven different page references in his index and the pyramids six, while poetry and cathedrals do not appear at all and Gothic architecture and the Parthenon have but one page reference each. Or why his book contains numerous pictures of prehistoric art and implements but none of medieval craftsmanship or of Italian painting? Or why he "cannot attempt to trace the development of the art of Filippo Lippi, Botticelli, Donatello (died 1466), Leonardo da Vinci (died 1519), Michelangelo (1475-1564), and Raphael (died 1520)," (p. 740) although he found plenty of time to trace the development of the fist-hatchet? Strange propaganda for universal peace this, to prefer weapons of war to peaceful Madonnas! And what historian of the old text-book school ever strung together in a single sentence a more barren series of names and dates than that just quoted? Yet Mr. Wells devotes a whole page to the Gypsies. And inasmuch as the culminating section of the *Outline* is headed, "What this World Might Be were it under one Law and Justice," one feels that Mr. Wells should have sacrificed his "temperamental lack of appreciation" for the law and traced more fully and coherently the past of legal institutions.

In short, Mr. Wells seems to have adopted a hop, skip, and jump method in writing the *Outline*. Taking a good running start back in the geological, pre-human, and stone ages, he has hopped lightly from hemisphere to hemisphere, he has skipped much in the historic period, but he has "landed with both feet" on various historic personages, such as Caesar, Alexander, and Napoleon. Now I hold no brief for British rule in India, but I suspect that it was mainly in order to reflect upon certain aspects of it that Wells glorified a nomad despot like Akbar on the say-so of a German *Weltgeschichte* (imperialistic Teutons⁴ enamoured of Kaiserism have been largely responsible for the absurd glorifications of Caesar and Alexander hitherto all too current) instead of treating him as he treated the afore-mentioned rulers and conquerors. And I have not the slightest objection to Wells's giving Cato the Censor a good kick, but I do object to his mentioning Cato no less than seven times and Solon only twice, and not saying a word concerning mosaics or stained glass, miniatures or flying buttresses, Shakespeare or Byron or Words-

worth. The Germans bombarded Rheims, but Wells does not give it even that much attention; instead he expends his perfectly good ammunition upon Marcus Porcius Cato and Sir Edward Carson.

In Mr. Wells's treatment of the Middle Ages his emphasis upon the Mongols is good, but his subordination of medieval Latin civilization to the crusades is antiquated, and his assertion that "It was only as the fifteenth century drew to its close that any indications of the real vitality of Western Europe became clearly apparent" (p. 700), is all wrong, as is his statement that "Until the sixteenth century we must remember European seamen never sailed out into the Atlantic Ocean" (p. 560), even though he excepts the Northmen, since the Madeiras, Canaries, and Azores were charted by 1351. His discussion of the medieval town and house is faulty, and he should have known better than to take a West German town of the fifteenth century as typical on the authority of a *German* writer. There was, I think, far more socialism and popular education in the thirteenth century than Mr. Wells realizes. In treating of the papacy he tells us only of its "defects and limitations," which is not fair, and he does not understand the relations of the popes with men of science.

Another error in connection with the history of science is seen in the statements that "this scientific blaze at Alexandria did not endure altogether for more than a century" (p. 343), and that the mental vigour of the Greeks ended with the decay of the Alexandrian Museum in the second century B. C. (pp. 556-7). Hero, for example, did not live in this first century of the Alexandrian age, but sometime between 150 B. C. and 250 A. D.—to say nothing of the possibility of still later additions to the works current under his name—while the great Greek scientists, Galen and Ptolemy, were of the second century A. D. Narrow classicists have probably led Mr. Wells astray here. He should either tell what Hero's "steam engine" really amounted to, or say nothing of it. Other assertions concerning the history of science and invention strike me as dubious but cannot be enlarged upon here. My aim is not to point out minor inaccuracies but defects which vitiate the reader's estimate of the civilization of the past or any considerable period of the past.

The three guiding stars toward which Mr. Wells would seem to have the whole course of evolution move are a more or less socialized world state and religion, organized scientific research, and popular education. Such is the characteristic message that comes forth from "a middle-class English home" (p. 435). Even in the eight points (pp. 1093-4) which elaborate these three, one will search in vain for mention of cunning and constructive manual labor, art or music.⁵ They are as absent as from a Non-Conformist chapel or a mid-Victorian parlour. And alas! we fear that these are not so much Mr. Wells's own limitations as that he knows his reading public, whether in England or America, all too well. They have heard before of the league of nations, of the progress of modern science, and of "education," and

so are ready to accord him a further hearing on these matters, but perhaps not even he could make them read about art.⁶ But if he could, what an opportunity! And how grossly, though perhaps inadvertently, unfair he has been to a number of past periods by failing to recognize their superiority to the present in this respect.

Indeed, one wonders whether Mr. Wells's entire conception of the course of civilization is not a perverted one, and whether, in order to exalt and lead *up* to the "education" and "democracy" of the present, he has not practically suppressed the greater part of the achievements of mankind since the primitive and prehistoric and archaeological and nomadic periods. The last reference to medicine in his index is to medicine among the Arabs. For these early periods Mr. Wells treats with fair inclusiveness of man's life as a whole, but thereafter the evils of politics and religion seem too largely to engross his attention, and his text is illustrated only with maps of political boundaries, and the heads of individual politicians or reformers. A cynic might call it less a history of civilization than of barbarism, prehistoric and present.

Centuries ago when Rome was falling and Western Europe was being overrun by barbarians, Orosius to justify Christianity wrote a brief world history, very popular in its day, in which he misrepresented the pagan past. Mr. Wells, writing an analogous work after the world catastrophe of 1914 in order to justify his new gospel, has, I fear, fallen into a somewhat similar error in his attitude toward the civilization of the historic period. Gibbon, looking back centuries after upon the age which followed Orosius, character-

ized it as the triumph of Christianity and barbarism. The tone and content of the *Outline* do not make me wholly confident that in the age which follows Wells the new world order which he desires may not have a somewhat similar accompaniment. In fine, I hold that Mr. Wells has not properly selected those "general facts of human history" of which he says there should be "common knowledge," or those "historical ideas" which should be "common" (p. vi). Let anyone who has some familiarity with the past test this for himself by thinking of three or four historical facts or ideas which he regards as especially important and then looking for them in the *Outline*.

¹ The Third Edition, p. 537, note.

² For him the Parthenon is simply "a thing of beauty" (p. 294); St. Sophia, "great and beautiful" (p. 536); Gothic architecture, a "lovely efflorescence" (p. 736). "Byzantine buildings" at Worms and Cologne—why does he mention these and say nothing of those at Ravenna?—are "pleasant" and "delight the tourist" (p. 625).

³ It omits a characterization at p. 625 of Charlemagne as "a distinguished amateur of church music;" but I cannot undertake to keep rectifying Mr. Wells's index.

⁴ I have Mommsen and Holm especially in mind.

⁵ In the following section Wells does allude briefly to "splendid artists" along with "first-class investigators" and "creative minds."

⁶ And let me interject that my experience with American undergraduates has been that if they do not appreciate art, it is because they have seldom seen any—upon entering college they usually cannot name offhand a single great painting or statue that they have seen; that they are hungry for art without knowing it, and that they welcome the interpretation of history in terms of the artistic remains.

The Economic Relations of England and Ireland, 1660-1750

BY GEORGE F. ZOOK, PH. D., UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

Many students of English history have pointed out the fact that in the 17th Century the English people became engrossed in commercial and industrial affairs. The organization of numerous commercial companies, the establishment of a large number of colonies and the care with which the trade and industries of the colonies were regulated are all indications of the economic trend. If, however, one wishes to appreciate thoroughly the direction which this economic tide was taking not even the colonies afford the best example of the attempt on the part of the English to restrain the commerce and industries of their dependent peoples. Ireland was close at hand and economic competition from there was keenly appreciated and feared in England. Throughout a long series of years, therefore, the English strenuously endeavored to suppress Irish trade and industry. Indeed, the story of the way in which Ireland fell a prey, one after another, to the commercial, agricul-

tural and manufacturing elements in England best illustrates to what length these respective classes went in the attempt to secure exclusive trade privileges and a monopoly of the market.

Even before the opening of the 17th Century there were some instances of the conflict of English and Irish economic interests. The Irish Parliament passed two laws in the reign of Henry VIII forbidding the export of any wool from Ireland.¹ These laws were replaced in 1569 by the imposition of a prohibitive duty of five shillings per stone on wool when exported, the intention being to encourage its manufacture at home.² In a report made in 1636, Thomas Wentworth, Lord Lieutenant in Ireland under Charles I, declared that the manufacture of clothing in Ireland was undesirable since it might injure the woollen trade in England. Moreover, he contended that the royal revenue would be much greater if the Irish exported their wool, because duties would then

be collected at exportation and also when it was returned as the finished product.³ Evidently the Irish themselves were not desirous of keeping all their wool at home because in 1640 the Irish Parliament requested that the laws prohibiting the export of various articles from the kingdom be revealed.⁴ The king consented to remove the prohibitory duties levied on exported wool by the Elizabethan laws, but only on condition that it should be sent nowhere except to England.⁵

Although Cromwell and his army dealt with the Irish most severely it was not his purpose to subject Ireland to England in an economic way. For instance, in the year 1654 an ordinance was passed providing that there should be levied in Ireland only those import duties which were collected in England.⁶ In another ordinance all the provisions of the English law in regard to imports and exports were distinctly declared to be in force both in Scotland and in Ireland.⁷ This meant that the Irish not only enjoyed the supposed benefits of the ordinance of trade of 1651, but also that they enjoyed perfect commercial equality with England, a situation as favorable as they could have expected.

Even the Restoration did not immediately change this enlightened policy of economic equality between the two kingdoms. In July, 1660, Charles II instructed the Duke of Albemarle, the Lord Lieutenant, to use every means to encourage the trade of Ireland so long as it did not interfere with English trade, which, he declared, should never be sacrificed to Irish interests.⁸ Again, in the Navigation Act, signed by the king on September 13, 1660, there were no provisions disadvantageous to the trade and commerce of Ireland. In fact, the Navigation Act specifically stated that no goods were to be imported into or exported out of His Majesty's plantations in America, Asia or Africa, except in ships of England, *Ireland*, Wales or Berwick on Tweed; that no goods from Asia, Africa or America were to be imported into England, *Ireland* or Wales except by ships of England, *Ireland*, Wales or the plantations; and finally that certain enumerated articles should be carried only to other plantations or to England, *Ireland* or Wales.⁹ A law passed in 1662 declared further that, in fulfilling the provisions of the law requiring English ships to be manned by sailors three-fourths of whom were English "it is to be understood that any of His Majesty's subjects of England, Ireland and his plantations are to be accounted English and no others."¹⁰ It is plain, therefore, that for the first few years of the reign of Charles II the English government allowed Ireland to remain on a plane of economic equality with England.

It was from the English wool manufacturers that complaint first arose concerning the economic relations of England and Ireland. Naturally they wanted a large domestic supply of wool, and hence they desired that it should not be shipped to foreign countries, because, as they complained, they would be despatched "with arrows from our own quiver."¹¹

The apprehension of the wool manufacturers was no doubt justified. Just before Charles II returned to the throne George Downing, writing from The Hague, declared that an immense quantity of English wool was being manufactured there to the great injury of England's woolen industries.¹² It was quite natural therefore that at the Restoration Charles II should instruct the Lord Lieutenant in Ireland "particularly to renew a strict and severe prohibition against the transportation of wool to any parts beyond the seas" except only to England.¹³ With no apparent concern for the inconsistency of his actions the king shortly thereafter granted to Major Henry O'Neile license to transport 60,000 pounds of wool to France and other places in direct opposition to the previous instruction and to the Elizabethan laws.¹⁴ Such disregard of England's woolen interests was decidedly unpopular with the Privy Council, however, and the officials in Ireland were again informed that they should not grant licenses for the exportation of wool to foreign countries.¹⁵

Charles II had given permission to send Irish wool to England not only because the importation of it increased his customs, but because he realized that if the raw wool remained in Ireland the Irish would be tempted to manufacture it, a development which would be extremely distasteful to the woolen manufacturers of England.¹⁶ Therefore, when the Irish asked for a law making obligatory in Ireland the wearing of clothes of their own manufacture the request was immediately rejected in England.¹⁷ Moreover, in order to expedite the export of Irish wool to England and to prevent it from going to the continent, the king appointed two men, Sir Nicholas Armorer and Gabriel Silvius, whose duty it was to require bonds of all persons exporting Irish wool to the effect that they would take it to no other place than England. In case of disobedience of the law these two men were to collect the forfeitures under the bonds.¹⁸

The year 1663 saw the real beginning of the hostile economic legislation toward Ireland. The English landed gentry disliked the competition of the Irish in furnishing the English market with beef cattle. Although in 1660 a rather heavy duty had been imposed on Irish cattle imported into England,¹⁹ it was by no means prohibitory. In the spring many thousand head of cattle were fattened on the abundant pastures in Ireland and later sent to the English market. The agricultural class in England pointed to this competition as being the chief cause of the decreasing profits and smaller rents from their lands.²⁰ Accordingly a prohibition of this cattle trade was inserted in the Act of Trade of 1663 by imposing high duties on all Irish cattle and sheep imported into England between July 1 and December 20 in each year, the period when such importation was naturally the heaviest. The Duke of Ormonde, who had been appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in 1661, declared that this prohibition would inevitably cause a great decrease in the king's customs.²¹ It was suggested that the farmers of the customs in

England had not lessened their offer for the customs on account of the prohibition of Irish cattle.²² This surprising situation only made the Duke suspect that they contemplated collusion with breakers of the law or as he expressed it, the farmers would have "the sole trade at their rates."²³

Other provisions of the Act of Trade almost completely excluded Ireland from the commercial equality in the colonial trade provided for by the Navigation Act of 1660. Only the king's subjects of England, Wales and Berwick might export goods to the plantations; with the exception of Irish victuals all goods had to be exported from England in English-built shipping; and finally the enumerated articles from the colonies had to be carried to England or Wales before they could be taken to any other place.²⁴ The omission of Ireland was no unintended oversight on the part of the English Parliament. With these disabilities on Irish trade in mind the Earl of Anglesey bitterly declared that the laws of England "are now calculated more narrowly than in former times, only for the profit (of) this (English) kingdom."²⁵ It is not surprising therefore that the Act of Trade aroused great hostility in Ireland. It was submitted to a committee of the Irish Board of Trade, which sets forth its grievances to the king through the Duke of Ormonde.²⁶ The Duke had already shown his intense interest; in fact he had lost no chance of impressing the king with Ireland's unhappy state. The king seemed to be entirely convinced of Ireland's plight, but, in view of the stubbornness with which the English landed gentry had insisted upon this part of the law he did not feel that it was wise to disregard its provisions.²⁷

In the latter part of 1664 another affliction beset Irish trade when a number of English merchants requested of the king a charter granting them the sole trade to the Canary Islands. Since a great deal of wine was imported to Ireland from there, and many victuals were exported by the Irish to those Islands, the grant of such a charter was of great consequence to Ireland. Nevertheless, notwithstanding a lively opposition, the patent was issued in January, 1665, to a company which was to consist of English subjects only.²⁸ In the following August the Irish merchants of Dublin, in a petition addressed to the Lord Lieutenant, protested loudly against the charter which deprived them of what they called their most useful trade.²⁹ The king disregarded the protest entirely, and, on the 10th of November, 1665, he directed the Lord Lieutenant to permit no violation of the company's privileges.³⁰ The Duke of Ormonde boldly declined the immediate execution of the king's order on the ground that it was his duty first to present the objections of the Irish farmers of the customs, the merchants, and various other people in Ireland.³¹ He declared that the limitation on the export of Irish wool, the prohibition on the export of cattle, and the exclusion from the plantation trade, were burdens all too heavy, and that restraint from the Canary trade would be another addition to Irish poverty.³² The proclamation was insisted upon, however, and being

convinced that he could do nothing more, the Duke caused it to be issued, September 3, 1666.³³

The English landed interest was not yet satisfied with the provisions of the Act of Trade of 1663 in regard to Irish cattle. Cattle were still imported into England either in direct violation of the law, or they were brought in during the spring, and then fattened for the market later in the year. The landed gentry again raised the cry of decreasing rents on account of this competition, and another parliamentary bill was urged in the latter part of 1665. The Duke of Ormonde expressed the hope that the opportunity would not be neglected by "those that look beyond their own grounds and sheep walks to put the House in mind that Ireland is one of the King's kingdom's and the people are his subjects of whose welfare he is obliged to have some care and to see them used with some reasonable measure of equality."³⁴ He condemned as most unjust the previous cattle act and the exclusion of Ireland from the direct trade to the colonies. Over and over again he insisted that the Irish must have freedom of trade or the army in Ireland could not be supported. "But," said he, "perhaps they will not believe a man bald till they see his brains."³⁵ In a long letter to the king the Duke and his council pleaded earnestly that the cattle trade and those trades depending upon it constituted nine-tenths of the Irish commerce; that Ireland could import nothing from England when her chief export was gone; and that the contemplated law would cut off Ireland from the markets of England, and compel her to depend upon goods imported from foreign countries.³⁶ Arguments were also presented to Parliament showing that the receipts from the customs would be diminished and 400 ships thrown out of employment.³⁷ It was all to no avail; the landed interests were determined to carry their point. However, the opposition to their plan was so spirited that it drew from the Duke of Buckingham the stinging remark, that whoever was against the bill "had either an Irish interest or an Irish understanding."³⁸ But, do what they might, the opponents of the bill could not prevent its passage.³⁹ Its provisions were sweeping. From February 2, 1667, the importation not only of all cattle, sheep and swine but of all beef, pork or bacon from Ireland to England or Wales was to be deemed "a public and common nuisance" punishable by the forfeiture of the goods.⁴⁰ At the same time a proclamation was issued forbidding the importation of Irish cattle into Scotland.⁴¹

The Duke of Ormonde might well have given up hope of ameliorating the Irish economic situation but he refused to do so. He may have remembered that the king had felt that the original cattle act was unjust, although he had not dared to reject either that or the last one. In the early part of February, 1667, the Duke called a meeting of the most prominent merchants in Ireland at which measures of relief and retaliation were discussed. They finally agreed upon an address which the Earl of Anglesey and others were to present to the king. In addition to a request for the suspension of the act of 1663, in order that the

Irish could trade to the colonies, they begged that all restraint on the export of commodities of the growth and manufacture of Ireland to foreign countries should be taken off during the Anglo-Dutch war which was going on at that time, and that passes be given to trade with France, Denmark, Holland or any other country whether these nations were enemies of England or not. They declared that this request would have to be granted or it would be necessary for England to despatch money for the support of the Irish government. They also asked, that so long as the restraint on Irish cattle was maintained in Scotland, a proclamation be issued prohibiting all commodities of the growth and manufacture of Scotland from entering Ireland.⁴²

The king and Privy Council decided to accede to the petition of the Irish in part, by permitting them to trade with Irish products to all foreign countries. The Irish were warned, however, not to engage in trade to the colonies except as the law of 1663 permitted, which admonition meant that they were not to export anything there except victuals; also they were not to infringe on the rights of the Canary Company, at that time on its last legs.⁴³ Two months later, April 24, 1667, the Privy Council ordered that the limits of the Royal, East India and Turkey companies should be excepted from the liberty granted to the Irish as in the case of the Canary Company.⁴⁴

The relief thus granted to the Irish met temporarily the situation which the Anglo-Dutch war had created. Vessels from several countries came to Dublin. On October 30, 1667, George Warburton declared "all our seaports are full of trade, great store of our country commodities being daily shipped off."⁴⁵ The measure was only a partial relief, however. For instance, the restrictions requiring the enumerated articles to be brought only to England and Wales evoked the observation from Sir George Rawdon that "it is very severe that all foreign goods must first be landed in England and here we the retailers only, and they in England, the merchants. We shall ever be niderlins till doomsday."⁴⁶ It was true; the English merchants alone could export goods to the colonies. The Irish could send nothing there but victuals and those only with English merchants in English ships. The return cargo was necessarily made up in large part of enumerated articles, which had to be landed in England before they could be carried to Ireland. As a consequence, the Irish found themselves without any ships, and paying English merchants large freights for carrying their victuals to France and the Barbadoes. In vain did the Irish Council of Trade seek to do something to give encouragement to Irish ships.⁴⁷

Since the Irish had not been expressly forbidden to carry on the colonial trade they began to contest the meaning of the law by maintaining that they still enjoyed whatever privileges the Navigation Act of 1660 gave them. The English customs farmers, whose influence in commercial affairs has never been properly appreciated, stated the case exactly, however, when they declared that the Navigation Act

permitted them to take bonds for the return of the cargo either to England or Ireland but that, under the Act of Trade, bonds could be taken for the return of the cargo only to England and Wales.⁴⁸ The dispute dragged on, partly because the king was loath to settle it. Parliament relieved him by deciding against the Irish. A law passed in 1670 distinctly repealed any right the Irish had of having the bonds issued so that the cargo might be permitted to come directly from the plantations to Ireland.⁴⁹

In the meantime Lord Robartes had taken the place of the Duke of Ormonde as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. His instructions informed him in no uncertain terms that, although the trade of Ireland was to be encouraged, nothing was to be done to injure the English trade, no matter how great the benefit to Ireland. The laws in regard to the plantation trade and the export of wool to England only were recommended for his especial care.⁵⁰

The Irish continued to feel the prohibition of the colonial trade keenly. Sir George Rawdon maintained that it caused more damage to Ireland than the restraint on the cattle trade.⁵¹ Doubtless the Irish had taken as much advantage of the pretended ambiguity of the act of 1663 as they could. After that matter was settled by the Act of 1670 they deliberately disobeyed the law. In collusion with the Irish customs farmers, who allowed them to be registered under false names in Ireland, ships from the plantations were permitted to land at all the Irish ports before they put in at an English port.⁵² The Treasury department was aroused and ordered such ships to be seized by the officers of the customs in Ireland. As a further means of preventing such infractions of the law a special surveyor of the customs was sent to Ireland.⁵³

Lord Robartes was succeeded as Lord Lieutenant by the Earl of Essex, who in writing to Lord Arlington, October 26, 1672, called attention to the decay of trade in Ireland, which he attributed in part to the war then going on, but mostly to the act of 1670.⁵⁴ In order to provide some relief for the Irish the Earl of Essex proposed that twenty ships be permitted to trade directly to the plantations. Treasurer Clifford replied that such liberty need not be expected, and advised him rather to keep close watch on all ships which attempted to come in from the plantations.⁵⁵ Also, the Customs Commissioners declared that, since the colonies had been founded at the expense of Englishmen, the laws had appropriated the plantation trade to England where it properly belonged, and that any such concession as was proposed would greatly injure English trade by replacing English manufactures and products with those of Ireland.⁵⁶ There seemed no escape. The farmers of the customs in Ireland gave up the fight, but they contended that the restrictions of the act of 1670 entitled them to damages from the government as having taken away a profitable source of revenue, which, under their contract they should enjoy. The government granted this contention and later they received a warrant for £12,000.⁵⁷

The Treasury department took numerous steps to secure the observance of the acts of trade but plantation ships continued to drop anchor in Irish ports pretending that they were disabled. This subterfuge irritated Thomas Osborne, the Lord High Treasurer, who sharply informed the Lord Lieutenant that such excuses could not be accepted else it would happen every day.⁵⁸ But the illicit trade could not be stopped entirely. Moreover, a statute passed in 1672 furnished an excuse for the disobedience of those of 1663 and 1670. The new law levied certain duties on the enumerated articles, such as white sugar 5 shillings per cwt., indigo 2d. per pound, and tobacco 1d. per pound, which duties were to be paid in the colonies when bonds were not entered into to export the articles to England, Wales or Berwick. Plainly the law intended that this should be a tax on these goods when carried from one colony to the other. The Irish, however, interpreted it as giving them permission to bring these goods directly to Ireland, and strange to say the English government acquiesced. In the words of the Irish Commissioners of Customs in 1686, "all the plantation goods were imported direct into Ireland as freely as when the trade was open by the Navigation Act, and though the act of 25 Car. II (1672) took effect from September, 1673, by which all the plantation goods imported into Ireland ought to have paid the duties imposed by it yet the same have returned little or nothing to the king in the Plantations, as the Commissioners of the English Customs are aware. And though they used every effort to seize ships and goods under the act of 22 & 23 Car. II (1670), yet it is plain that same neither prevented direct importation of tobacco into Ireland, nor compelled the merchants to pay the plantation duty."⁵⁹

This direct trade with Ireland was also connived at in the colonies. In an account of the Island of Jamaica of January, 1676, Governor Vaughan declared that the trade in provisions to Ireland was preferable to the same trade with New England because the Irish took more products of Jamaica than the people of New England.⁶⁰ In 1680 a ship from Ireland was seized in Jamaica because it had several casks of Irish soap on board. The case came up in court. In order to clear the defendant one witness swore that soap was victuals and that one could live on it for a month if necessary. The jury accepted this testimony and the defendant was acquitted.⁶¹ About the same time one hears of a spirited discussion in Ireland as to what import duties should be charged respectively on tobacco coming directly from the plantations and from the plantations by way of England.⁶² It is plain that the law of 1670 was not enforced either in Ireland or the colonies.

The restriction on their commerce was sufficient, however, to impel the Irish to turn their attention to other means of making a livelihood. Much land was turned into sheep pastures and the export of wool began to be increasingly important⁶³ although the exact amount can hardly be ascertained. According

to a set of figures for the year ending September 29, 1671, there was exported 352,307 stones of Irish wool.⁶⁴ Naturally this amount does not include the wool which was taken out of Ireland by stealth most of which never reached England, but went abroad to the great detriment of the English woolen manufacturers. Furthermore, in 1672, the Irish Parliament endeavored to encourage prospective woolen manufacturers by imposing rather heavy duties on exported wool.⁶⁵ Hoping to take advantage of this encouragement the Duke of Ormonde and others started a woolen enterprise at Clonmel and succeeded in getting it well under way. For a time there was reason to believe that it and similar undertakings might interfere with the woolen industry in England. Since the supply could be obtained at cheaper prices than in England the only question was to get weavers and spinners who would work at reasonable wages.⁶⁶ After the enterprise at Clonmel had been in operation for some time, however, it failed completely. The competition of Irish manufacturers did not, therefore, furnish a serious obstacle to the English woolen manufacturers.

The clandestine export of Irish wool to various parts of the continent, however, continued as much as ever in spite of all precautions. As has been suggested bonds had to be given that the wool would be carried to England, but by collusion with the customs officials, who accepted counterfeited certificates, it failed to reach its supposed destination. The two men, Armorer and Silvius, whom the king had empowered to collect the forfeitures under the bonds, also apparently grossly abused their office. Arrangements were made with them, so that the penalties were either not incurred or when incurred could not be collected. During the administration of the Earl of Essex it was said that of the £22,900 incurred as damages, only £770 was actually collected.⁶⁷ In December, 1675, the Earl of Danby, then Lord High Treasurer, endeavored to stop this fraudulent practice by directing the Irish customs officials to send a duplicate of each ship's entry to the officials in England.⁶⁸ This order met with no more success than previous efforts for, in 1678, when the Duke of Ormonde was once more Lord Lieutenant, he admitted that a great deal of Irish wool was finding its way to foreign countries. He made an honest effort to stop it by offering rewards for the seizure of offenders, by which means several men were apprehended and prosecuted. The Duke maintained rightly, however, that the illegal export of wool could not be stopped until some severe punishment was inflicted on offending customs officials, not only in Ireland, but also in England.⁶⁹

The Irish cattle act of 1667 had been passed for seven years. During this time its stringent provisions had been even more unpopular than the restrictions on the exportation of wool, and there were naturally numerous attempts to evade or dispense with the law. For instance, on December 15, 1672, the Earl of Essex wrote to Arlington that he had a proposition to make, which would be of "considerable advantage" to him, but that it was of such a nature as to make

it best to send someone to England to confer with him on the matter.⁷⁰ For this purpose he selected Mr. Godolphin, who was not himself so discreet because he boldly wrote to Arlington asking him if he "would think it worth while to procure a license from His Majesty for transporting from hence to England 10,000 cattle, which would be worth the procurer about £5000." He suggested that cattle were constantly being exported in small numbers anyway and all that was needed in this case was "an intimation of His Majesty's pleasure to the governing men" of several of the chief towns.⁷¹ What was accomplished in this interesting negotiation has not been discovered. It is unlikely, however, that anything came of it.

On every hand merchants and consumers were demanding the repeal of the unpopular cattle act. It was argued that the English customs suffered both in the decreased duty on the incoming cattle, and in export duties on articles sent in return; that navigation had declined, the prohibition having dispensed with three or four hundred ships used constantly in the trade; that, whereas before the prohibition foreign ships had been victualled in England, it was now done in Ireland where beef was much cheaper than in England; and finally that the Irish had been compelled to resort to the raising of sheep the wool from which was being taken to the continent to the detriment of the English woolen manufacturers.⁷² Sir William Petty argued that the value of oxen and sheep brought into England had never been great as compared to the total consumption there, and that the price of these animals had not increased much since the prohibition. On the other hand he contended that English mariners had lost 4s. 6d. per head in freight, owners of grazing lands in England a like amount, the king considerable customs; and even if the English cattle raisers had gained by the prohibition, the sheep raisers had lost heavily from it on account of the increased competition of Irish wool.⁷³

Perhaps it was due to this opposition that at its expiration the law was not renewed immediately. Three years later, however, in 1677, the country gentlemen came forward with the same old plea of falling rents and the decay of their trade.⁷⁴ After a very bitter fight in which friend was arrayed against friend the bill forever prohibiting the importation of Irish cattle and fish into England was passed.⁷⁵ It was not until 1680, however, that such an act was signed by the king and thus became a permanent law.⁷⁶

It has been seen how the Irish were permitted to interpret the law of 1672, which imposed duties on plantation goods carried to other places than England, so as almost completely to annul the prohibition against importing the enumerated articles direct from the plantations, as specifically provided in the act of 1670. According to the testimony of the Irish Customs Commissioners not only was the law of 1670 everywhere disregarded but very little customs were collected under the law of 1672. The act of 1670 expired in 1680, and what little restraint it may have placed on the direct importation of the enumerated

articles was thereby removed. In an order of February 16, 1681, the Privy Council declared that the expiration of this law in no way affected the force of the act of 1672, and that therefore the duties imposed by it were subject to collection.⁷⁷ Steps were then taken for the first time to put the act of 1672 into actual effect.⁷⁸

It was then discovered that tobacco imported by way of England to Ireland paid in duties ½d. more than tobacco imported directly from the colonies. This was on account of the fact that ½d. of the English duty was not drawn back. The trade to Ireland by way of England was thus at a disadvantage. Accordingly, on report of the Commissioners of the Customs, it was ordered that the two duties be equalized by charging ½d. less in Ireland for tobacco imported into Ireland by way of England.⁷⁹ The Irish Commissioners of Revenue then proposed that the duty of 2d. per pound levied in the plantations by the law of 1672 be removed and that duties equal to one half those supposed to be levied in that law be collected in Ireland. This was agreed to. From April to Christmas, 1685, the Commissioners collected £4831 from this source, a sum, which, they declared, was more than had been realized in all the ten years previous from the whole duty when collected in the colonies, even including the intercolonial trade.⁸⁰

Ireland was not to enjoy the colonial trade long. Soon after the accession of James II Parliament revived the law of 1670 requiring the enumerated articles to go only to England, Wales and Berwick.⁸¹ The merchants in Ireland and the Customs Commissioners were very much concerned. The latter drew up for the Lord Lieutenant an exhaustive report, which reviewed the history of Ireland's participation in the plantation trade to that time. They maintained that the renewal of the law would destroy their colonial trade and that their ships would "go by the walls"; that the Irish merchants would be ruined on account of their having to enter outward and inward from England, which necessitated the loss of several months; that to provide for the various securities, bonds and customs necessary in going by way of England would require a bank of money, which no Irish merchant possessed; and that it would be far better to continue the scheme of charging the half duty which had been tried in the previous year, 1685. Finally, they said, there could be no harm in permitting tobacco to come directly to Ireland, since it was never re-exported to other countries, and careful measures would be taken to prevent such injury to English commerce.⁸² The Earl of Clarendon, then Lord Lieutenant, supplemented this report with a letter, addressed to the Lord Treasurer, in which he argued that no injury could possibly come to English trade by dispensing with the law, and that such dispensation would aid Ireland greatly.⁸³

The Customs Commissioner in England reminded the Irish that the trade of the English plantations belonged to England, and that more revenue would come to the king if the Irish were compelled to import

their goods by way of England, as has been amply demonstrated in Bristol, where, in the three years following the expiration of the act of 1670, 1,341,684 pounds less tobacco had been brought there to be re-exported to Ireland than in the three years preceding the expiration. In this one port, therefore, a large amount of revenue had been lost to the king because, as has been said, $\frac{1}{2}$ d. of the customs duty was not drawn back upon re-exportation. As to the loss of the plantation trade, the Commissioners declared that the Irish could still carry victuals there as the law of 1663 provided; and that it was not, therefore, as has been asserted, necessary to enter out from England; neither was it necessary to return to England unless enumerated articles were carried. From these facts the Commissioners concluded that there was no ground for the complaint.⁸⁴

The Irish Commissioners replied that they did not believe that the $\frac{1}{2}$ d. not drawn back on tobacco when re-exported from England to Ireland would amount to the $\frac{1}{2}$ d. extra levied in Ireland as in 1685. Furthermore, they maintained that it was necessary to carry some English or European goods in their cargoes to the colonies. According to the law in such a case, the ship must enter out from England; a requirement to which they declared they would cheerfully submit if only they could import all goods directly from the plantations. As to the loss in the Bristol trade, which had been cited, they answered, that the reason for this was because at that time all trade was shifting north to Chester and Liverpool.⁸⁵ By this time the Commissioners in England had grown impatient at the controversy and pointed out sharply that the Irish were under no more prohibition than during the nine years in which the law had been in force before.⁸⁶ The opinion held by the English Customs Commissioners was shared by the Board of Trade so that it was finally decided to deny the petition of the Irish and grant no dispensation of the law as it had been revived.⁸⁷ Orders to that effect were sent to Ireland in June, 1686.⁸⁸

If the Irish had been unable to secure trade privileges during the reign of James II it would seem as if they had little to hope for when William of Orange became king.⁸⁹ For several years conditions remained much the same but in the Parliamentary session of 1695-6 a law was passed which to some extent lifted the burden on Irish commerce. While the law of 1662 had distinctly declared that Irish sailors were to be accounted as English in making up the crew of a ship. Irish built ships had not enjoyed similar privileges. The new law, however, stated that all trade between the colonies and England or between the colonies themselves should be carried on in ships of the build of England, Ireland or the plantations, wholly owned by the people thereof, and navigated with mariners, three-fourths of whom were from such places; that no plantation goods should be put on shore in Ireland until they had first been landed in England, Wales or Berwick; and finally that, notwithstanding the payment of the duty as provided for in 1672, the plantation goods must first be imported as above.⁹⁰

These several provisions placed Irish ships for the first time since 1663 on equal terms with those of England, but, on the other hand, henceforth not only enumerated articles but all other plantation goods had to be landed in England before being taken to Ireland. This subterfuge of the Irish paying, or pretending to pay, the duty on plantation goods as provided for in 1672, and then importing them directly to Ireland, was not to be permitted. This duty was to be levied upon intercolonial trade, as the original law plainly intended. In the following year instructions were given to the governors to enforce strictly all the provisions of the plantation laws.⁹¹

It has already been pointed out that the manufacture of woolens in Ireland was regarded with disfavor throughout the reign of Charles II. Moreover, the attempt to manufacture woolens had not met with success, the most notable one of the Duke of Ormonde at Clonmel proving a failure. The denial of the cattle trade and the limitations put on their commerce, however, necessarily compelled the Irish to turn to the raising of sheep. The possession of the wool was a constant temptation to manufacture woolen cloth, at least for domestic use. This manufacture of woolens had become extensive enough in 1697 to cause the jealousy of the English manufacturers. They were afraid that small beginnings might ultimately lead to larger undertakings for, as one man declared in 1698, although the export of woolens from Ireland was small it would grow, and whether it was small or large, it replaced what otherwise would have been made in England. For the preservation of the English woolen manufacturers it would be better to dump the Irish woolens into the sea than have them used in competition with England's industries.⁹² The author⁹³ of these extreme opinions professed to be no enemy of Ireland; rather he thought it a very good plan to encourage any Irish industry that did not compete with a similar one in England. In this respect he suggested that it would be money well spent if England would lend £100,000 to the Irish to establish the manufacture of linen.⁹⁴

The encouragement of linen manufactures in Ireland was not a new idea. The Earl of Strafford had been interested in it while he was Lord Lieutenant.⁹⁵ In 1665 the Irish Parliament had passed a law requiring the raising of a certain proportion of flax and hemp among the products of the island.⁹⁶ In 1670 the Treasury department in England recommended the enforcement of this act, and was in favor of encouraging the Irish in the making of linen.⁹⁷ Twenty years later, when there was a renewed interest in the manufacture of linen, a corporation, known as the "Governor and Assistants of the King and Queen's Corporation for the Linen Manufactures in Ireland," was established.⁹⁸ In order that Ireland might have workmen who were familiar with the manufacture of linen, the Lords Justices of Ireland recommended the policy of encouraging foreign Protestants to come into the kingdom.⁹⁹ In 1692 the Irish Parliament passed a law to that effect.¹⁰⁰

In 1695-6 the English Parliament followed up this encouragement by passing a law which stated that, in view of the fact that England was continually exporting money for hemp, flax and linen productions, it would be desirable to have such articles supplied from Ireland. It was believed that Ireland could furnish them if foreign Protestants were sufficiently encouraged to come to Ireland. The law then provided that it should be legal to import into England, free of all customs whatsoever, hemp and flax or any product of them such as thread, yarns and linen.¹⁰¹

Thus, by the year 1697, the attitude of the English Parliament toward woolen and linen manufactures respectively was defined. One is not surprised, therefore, to learn of a bill introduced in the House of Commons in that year to prohibit the export of woolens from Ireland. Although it passed the House of Commons it did not become a law owing to the fact that Parliament was dissolved before it could pass the House of Lords. In the following year the attempt was resumed. The House of Lords, in an address to the king, on June 9, cited the fact that the woolen manufactures could be made much cheaper in Ireland than in England, which "makes your loyal subjects in this kingdom very apprehensive that the further growth of it may greatly prejudice the said manufacture here; by which the trade of this nation and the value of the lands will much decrease, and the numbers of your people be much lessened here; wherefore, we do most humbly beseech your most sacred majesty . . . to declare to all your subjects of Ireland, that the growth and increase of the woolen manufacture there, hath long, and still will be ever looked upon with great jealousy, by all your subjects of this kingdom: And if not timely remedied, may occasion very strict laws, totally to prohibit and suppress the same, and on the other hand, if they turn their industry and skill, to the settling and improving the linen manufacture, for which generally the lands of that kingdom are very proper, they shall receive all countenance, favour and protection from your royal influence, for the encouragement and promoting of the said linen manufacture, to all the advantage and profit, that kingdom can be capable of."¹⁰²

The House of Commons expressed itself in much the same way, on the 30th of June, when it called the king's attention to the importance of the woolen manufacture in England.¹⁰³ To this representation the king answered, July 2, "I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and to encourage the linen manufacture there; and to promote the Trade of England."¹⁰⁴

The Woolen Act of 1699 was the result. To Americans it is known because it prohibited inter-colonial trade in the woolen manufactures of the colonies. The inspiration of the bill, however, was the situation in Ireland. That part of the act referring to Ireland declared that no person should transport to any country except England and Wales "any wool, Woollfells, Shortlings, Mortlings, Woollflocks, Worsted, Bay, or Woollen Yarne, Cloth, Serge, Bays, Kersies, Says, Frizes, Druggets, Cloth-Serges, Shalloons or any other

Drapery Stuffs or Woollen Manufactures whatsoever;" that when these goods were taken to England or Wales large bonds were to be given for their certain delivery; and that whenever the bonds were forfeited, because of disobedience, a part of the forfeitures was to be used in setting up linen manufactures in Ireland.¹⁰⁵

It seems certain that the Irish accepted in the best of faith the declaration of the English that the linen manufactures should receive all possible encouragement.¹⁰⁶ In harmony with this policy the Lords Justices of Ireland, shortly after the passage of the Woolen Act, stated that the "linen and hempen manufactures will not only be encouraged, as consistent with the trade of England, but will render the trade of this kingdom both useful and necessary to England."¹⁰⁷ The Irish House of Commons also declared that it was ready to encourage the Irish linen and hempen manufactures and to protect England's woolen trade from injury in Ireland.¹⁰⁸ It then proceeded to throttle its own woolen industry by imposing additional export duties to the ones already in force which practically prohibited the exportation of Irish woolens from the kingdom.¹⁰⁹

Thus was cemented the famous compact which has been the occasion for much spirited discussion since that time. There seems to be no doubt that the Irish expected to sacrifice their woolen manufactures for the encouragement of the linen manufactures. It seems almost as certain that the English Parliament had bound itself to encourage the Irish linen manufactures. Indeed it had distinctly declared that it would do everything to favor them, and the next law relating to the subject, passed in 1704, supports this view. After citing the act of 1663, which it will be remembered permitted victuals only to be carried directly from Ireland to the plantations, the new law recognized the duty of aiding the Irish linen manufactures by providing that in addition to victuals linen cloth of the manufacture of Ireland might be laden in Ireland, taken to the plantations and sold freely.¹¹⁰ The Irish Parliament, also, proceeded on the assumption that it would be permitted and expected to do all that it could to establish the linen manufacture on a firm basis. In one law it was provided that no export duty should be laid on linens.¹¹¹ Another statute granted a bounty of five shillings per hhd. for the import of hemp seed, and 1 to 2d. per yard for the export of sail canvas.¹¹² Still others imposed additional duties on the importation of calicoes in order to encourage the weaving and consumption of linen cloth.¹¹³

It was not long, however, before the English began to pay some attention to their own linen manufactures. A law of 1713 laid a duty of 1d. per ell on all sail cloth and canvas imported into England from any other place than Ireland. One half of this duty was to be used as a bounty to encourage the exportation of English sail cloth from England.¹¹⁴ Furthermore, it was provided in 1717 that the privilege recently extended to Ireland of exporting linen to the plantations should be continued only on condition that the

Irish repeal their duties and subsidies, amounting to 12 shillings per 100 ells, on English white and brown linens imported into Ireland. The Irish Parliament immediately acquiesced to this demand.¹¹⁵

In 1715 the Irish further encouraged their linen manufactures by granting an increased bounty on the export of sail canvas. This bounty was to be paid according to the following rates: canvas or sail cloth of 14d. value per yard and upwards, 4d. per yard; canvas or sail cloth valued at from 10 to 14d. per yard, 2d. per yard.¹¹⁶ Due to this heavy bounty a considerable quantity of linen cloth began to find its way into England. In 1750 the English Parliament attempted to check this importation of Irish linen by providing that exactly the same duty should be charged on the importation of Irish linens into England as the Irish paid in bounties for the export of their linen, and that these duties should remain so long as the Irish bounties were paid.¹¹⁷ This was the law which was so universally condemned in Ireland as being a breach of faith with the Irish people. Maintaining that the English had promised their encouragement to the Irish linen manufactures the Irish accused the English of depriving them of their part of the exchange which was an exclusive woolen trade for an exclusive linen trade.

Thus by 1750 it seemed as if the commercial and industrial condition of Ireland was well defined by the retention of only a few privileges. Mostly she was burdened with unenviable disabilities. By the act of 1663, as amended by the laws of 1695-6 and 1731, Irish ships enjoyed equality with English ships but enumerated articles from the plantations had to be landed in England before they could go to Ireland. The same law as amended by the act of 1704 permitted provisions and linen cloth to go directly from Ireland to the plantations; all other goods had to be loaded in England. The Irish could export their wool only to England. Although the export of woolen cloth to England was permitted it was really prohibited by the heavy export duty which the Irish themselves had levied. Finally England discouraged the Irish linen manufactures by the imposition in England of import duties, which offset the bounties granted by the Irish for the encouragement of that industry.

Such is the story of the various restrictions placed on Irish commerce and industries from time to time beginning with the reign of Charles II. Practically all of them were removed before the union of the two parliaments in 1801.¹¹⁸ In general, however, the Irish labored under the disabilities of the various laws during most of the 18th Century. They were enforced with varying degrees of severity and success. No one can doubt, however, that the numerous economic restrictions were sufficiently onerous to contribute in large part to the national antipathy which Ireland has borne toward England for so many years.

¹¹⁵ Irish Statutes at Large, Dublin, 1786. 13 Henry VIII C 2, and 28 Henry VIII C 17.

¹¹⁶ *Ibid.*, 11 Elizabeth, session 3, C 10; 18 Elizabeth C 2.

¹¹⁷ C. S. P. (*Calendar of State Papers, Ireland, 1633-1647*, p. 134, report by the Lord Deputy on the state of Ireland, June 21, 1636).

¹¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 246, Irish Parliament to the king (Circa, November 11, 1640).

¹¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 328, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, August 2, 1641. The Privy Council, however ordered that wool, both coarse and fine, valued at 10 shillings per stone, should pay 6d. customs.

¹²⁰ Scobell, *A Collection of Acts and Ordinances, 1654*, C 33.

¹²¹ *Ibid.*, 1656, C 9.

¹²² C. S. P., Ireland, 1660-1662, p. 16, *Instructions to Lord Roberts* (July), 1660.

¹²³ *Statutes of the Realm, 12 Car. II, C 18, Sections 1, 3, 18*. The author has placed the emphasis on the word "Ireland."

¹²⁴ *Ibid.*, 14 Car II C 11.

¹²⁵ C. S. P., *Domestic, 1661-1662*, p. 449, *proposal (July 30)*, 1662.

¹²⁶ Thurloe, *A Collection of State Papers, London, 1742*. Vol. 7: 848.

¹²⁷ C. S. P., *Ireland, 1660-1662*, p. 16, *instructions to Lord Robartes* (July), 1660. This was in accordance with a law of 1660 forbidding the transportation of wool from the king's dominions to foreign parts. *Statutes of the Realm, 12 Car. II C 32*.

¹²⁸ C. S. P., *Ireland, 1660-1662*, p. 305, the king to O'Neile, April 10, 1661. There was also a grant to Sir Francis Hamilton to transport 700 packs of wool to foreign parts. *Ibid.*, p. 351, the king to the Lords Justices, June 11, 1661.

¹²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 385, (Nicholas) to the Lords Justices, July 23, 1661.

¹³⁰ C. S. P., *Ireland, 1660-1662*, p. 691, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, August 5, 1662.

¹³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 608, notes.

¹³² *Ibid.*, p. 590, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, September 8, 1662. These men received their letters patent for the office, June 15, 1663. C. S. P., *Domestic, 1673*, p. 337, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, June 4, 1673.

¹³³ *Statutes of the Realm, 12 Car. II C 4*.

¹³⁴ Hist. MSS. Com. (*Historical Manuscripts Commission*) Reports, *Ormonde MSS., N. S. (New Series)*, 3: 58, *Coventry to Ormonde*, June 20, 1663.

¹³⁵ C. S. P., *Ireland, 1663-1665*, p. 124, the Lord Lieutenant to Bennet, June 10, 1663.

¹³⁶ Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, *Ormonde MSS., N. S., 3: 72*, *Anglesey to Ormonde*, August 15, 1663.

¹³⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 74, *Ormonde to Anglesey*, August 15, 1663.

¹³⁸ *Statutes of the Realm, 15 Car. II C 7*.

¹³⁹ Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, *Ormonde MSS., N. S., 3: 72*, *Anglesey to Ormonde*, August 15, 1663.

¹⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 81, *Ormonde to Anglesey*, August 22, 1663.

¹⁴¹ *Carte, Life of James, Duke of Ormonde, Oxford, 1851*. Volume 4: 236-242.

¹⁴² C. S. P., *Domestic, 1664-1665*, p. 187, *memorandum, January, 1664/5*.

¹⁴³ C. S. P., *Ireland, 1663-1665*, p. 626, *merchants of Dublin to the Lord Deputy of Ireland (August 17), 1665*.

¹⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 663, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, November 10, 1665; *ibid.*, 1666-1669, p. 96, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, April 19, 1666.

¹⁴⁵ C. S. P., *Ireland, 1666-1669*, p. 90, the Lord Lieutenant to Arlington, April 18, 1666.

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 165-167, the Lord Lieutenant to Arlington, July 27, 1666.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 204, proclamation by the Lord Lieutenant and Council, September 4, 1666. Not only was the company strenuously opposed in Ireland, but it also had enemies so vigorous in England that it finally gave up the contest. The trade to the Canaries was again thrown open and the charter surrendered, September 27, 1667. C. S. P., Domestic, 1667, p. 486, royal proclamation, September 27, 1667.

²⁵ C. S. P., Ireland, 1663-1665, p. 657, the Lord Lieutenant to Arlington, October 25, 1655.

²⁶ Hist. MSS. Com. Report XI, part 5, p. 13.

²⁷ C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 183-188, the Lord Lieutenant and Council to the king, August 15, 1666.

²⁸ C. S. P., Domestic, 1666-1667, p. 230, reasons offered to Parliament, October ?, 1666.

²⁹ Hansard, Parliamentary History of England (William Cobbett, Editor). Volume 4: 341. On account of this remark the Earl of Ossory, eldest son of the Duke of Ormonde, challenged Buckingham to a duel, but the affair ended without their coming to blows.

³⁰ A resume of the speeches in opposition to the bill may be found in C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 53-542, memorandum (Circa, 1667).

³¹ Statutes of the Realm, 18 & 19 Car. II C 2. The law was to be in force for seven years. It was strengthened the next year by providing heavier punishment for offenders. 19 & 20 Car. II C 12.

³² C. S. P., Domestic, 1666-1667, p. 485, royal proclamation, February 1, 1667.

³³ C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 290-293, the Lord Lieutenant and Council to the king, February 9, 1667; *ibid.*, pp. 303, 304, Anglesey *et al* to the king, February 17, 1666/7. The Duke of Ormonde had proposed this freedom of trade to European countries once before, especially in regard to the exportation of sheep and wool. C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 184, 185, the Lord Lieutenant and Council to the king, August 15, 1666.

³⁴ A. P. C. (Acts of the Privy Council), Colonial Series, 1:428; C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, p. 328; the king to the Lord Lieutenant, March 23, 1667.

³⁵ C. S. P., Domestic, 1667, p. 51, order in Council, April 24, 1667.

³⁶ C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 351, 479, Warburton to Williamson, April 23, October 30, 1667.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 574, Rawdon to Conway, February 8, 1668.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 609-611, proposals of the Council of Trade in Ireland, June 4, 1668.

³⁹ Cal. Treas. Bks. (Calendar of Treasury Books), 3, part 1:463, Treasury minute, June 27, 1670.

⁴⁰ Statutes of the Realm, 22 & 23 Car. II C 26 S 6. As originally passed by the House of Commons the act deprived the Irish of their only remaining trade in provisions to the West Indies which had been left to them in 1663. Due to the intervention of the planters of Barbadoes this was not agreed to by the House of Lords and so was omitted from the law. C. S. P., Colonial, 1669-1674, p. 369.

⁴¹ C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, p. 761, instructions to Lord Robartes, July 23, 1669.

⁴² C. S. P., Domestic, 1671, p. 585, Rawdon to Conway, November 25, 1671.

⁴³ Cal. Treas. Bks., 3, part 2:1049, Treasury minute, March 12, 1671/2.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 1280, Treasury instructions to William Kirby, July 15, 1672.

⁴⁵ Camden Society Publications. Essex Papers, 1:36, Essex to Arlington, October 26, 1672. The Earl of Essex speaks as if all trade, including the profitable one in victuals and provisions, was denied by the act of 1670. It practically amounted to that.

⁴⁶ Cal. Treas. Bks., 4: 72, 73, Clifford to (the Lord Lieutenant), February 24, 1672/3.

⁴⁷ Essex Papers, P1:54-56, Customs Commissioners to Clifford, February 10, 1672/3.

⁴⁸ Cal. Treas. Bks., 4: 126, royal warrant, April 30, 1673; Essex Papers, 1:36, Essex to Arlington, October 26, 1672.

⁴⁹ Cal. Treas. Bks., 4:380, Osborne to Essex, 1673.

⁵⁰ C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, p. 152, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, February 15, 1686. In June, 1679, Sir George Downing appeared before the Board of Trade in England and complained of the abuse against the plantation acts which was being practiced in Ireland. Board of Trade Journals, 1675-1782, transcribed from the original manuscripts volumes in the Public Record Office of England for the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, London, 1898, volume 3: 22-24.

⁵¹ C. S. P., Colonial, 1675-1676, p. 344, an account of Jamaica, January 28, 1676.

⁵² C. S. P., Colonial, 1677-1680, p. 487, Morgan to the Lords of Trade and Plantations, February 24, 1680.

⁵³ A. P. C., Colonial, 1:663, 666; C. S. P., Domestic, 1676-1677, pp. 586, 587, reasons (May, 1676). About this time Sir William Petty declared that 2/7 of the "expense of the Irish in food is tobacco." The Economic Writings of Sir William Petty, edited by Charles H. Hull Cambridge, 1899, volume 1: 191. In 1727 Arthur Dobbs stated that, in the years from 1719 to 1726, the average amount of tobacco imported into Ireland was 59,529 pounds, which was considerably larger than any other single import. Coal, sugar and hops were also large imports. Dobbs (Essay on Trade and Improvement of Ireland, Dublin, 1729, part 1, p. 56.

⁵⁴ Smith, memoirs of wool, London, 1747, volume I:247, Temple to Essex, 1673; *ibid.*, pp. 301-303, a gentleman in Ireland to his brother in England.

⁵⁵ C. S. P., Domestic, 1671, p. 507, contents of wool exported from Ireland (September 29), 1671.

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, 1672, p. 337, the king to Essex, July 12, 1672; Essex papers, 1: 275, memorandum concerning the exportation of wool from Ireland.

⁵⁷ Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Ormonde MSS., N. S., 3: 347.

⁵⁸ Essex Papers, 1:276, memorandum concerning the exportation of wool from Ireland.

⁵⁹ Cal. Treas. Bks., 4: 632, Danby to the Lord Lieutenant, December 15, 1674.

⁶⁰ Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Ormonde MSS., 2: 268, 269. By the use in part of wool secured from Ireland the French developed their woolen manufactures to such an extent that large import duties, intended to be prohibitory, were levied on English woolens entering that country. As a means of retaliation the English Parliament passed the Poll Bill, which prohibited, for a period of three years, many French articles from entering England. Statute of the Realm. 29 & 30 Car. II C 1.

⁶¹ C. S. P., Domestic, 1672-1673, p. 283, the Lord Lieutenant to (Arlington), December 15, 1672.

⁶² *Ibid.*, 1672-1673, p. 170, Godolphin to Arlington, November 16, 1672.

⁶³ C. S. P., Domestic, 1673-1675, pp. 166-167, reasons to Parliament, February, 1673/4; Essex Papers, 1: 167, Aungier to Essex, January 27, 1673/4.

⁷³ C. S. P., Domestic, 1673-1675, pp. 169, 170, observations by W. (Petty), February, 1674). With one exception everybody in Ireland desired the repeal of the law. The Earl of Essex was afraid that, if the cattle trade once more became the dominant one in Ireland, his profits obtained by granting licenses for the export of wool would drop to £1500 or £2000 per annum as was the case previous to the cattle act. Under conditions then existing he received not less than £4000 annually from this source. Essex Papers, 1: 172, Essex to Harbord, February 14, 1673/4; *ibid.*, p. 275, memorandum concerning the exportation of wool from Ireland.

⁷⁴ C. S. P., Domestic, 1676-1677, p. 542, memorandum, February 10, 1677.

⁷⁵ Hist. MSS. Com. Report, 7, appendix, p. 468; *ibid.*, Report 8, appendix, p. 391.

⁷⁶ Statutes of the Realm, 32 Car. II C 2.

⁷⁷ A. P. C., Colonial, 2: 15, 16, 87, orders of the Privy Council, February 16, 1681, June 19, 1685; C. S. P., Colonial, 1681-1685, p. 58, Badcock to the Customs Commissioners, May 26, 1681; *ibid.*, 1685-1688, p. 264, the case respecting the plantation trade of Ireland, October 23, 1686.

⁷⁸ Out of this attempt grew the quarrel between Lord Baltimore and Nicholas Badcock in Maryland. The latter insisted on collecting the duty, which the law of 1672 levied on tobacco not exported to England. When he refused to pay the duty he was reported to and reprimanded by the Board of Trade. Board of Trade Journals, 3: 317-320; C. S. P., Colonial, 1681-1685, p. 232, Baltimore to Jenkins, May 18, 1682.

⁷⁹ A. P. C., Colonial, 2: 69, order of the Privy Council, June 27, 1684.

⁸⁰ C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, pp. 152, 153, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, February 15, 1686.

⁸¹ *Ibid.*, p. 264, the case respecting the plantation trade of Ireland, October 23, 1686; Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Egmont MSS., 2: 155.

⁸² C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, pp. 152, 153, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, February 15, 1686.

⁸³ *Ibid.*, pp. 160, 161, Clarendon to the Lord Treasurer, March 16, 1686.

⁸⁴ C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, pp. 166, 167, Customs Commissioners to the Lord Treasurer, March 29, 1686.

⁸⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 175-177, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, April 22, 1686.

⁸⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 187, 188, Customs Commissioners to the Lord Treasurer, May 12, 1686.

⁸⁷ Board of Trade Journals, 5: 280-282.

⁸⁸ C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, p. 264, the case respecting the plantation trade of Ireland, October 23, 1686.

⁸⁹ In the troubled times succeeding William's accession some attempts were made to carry goods directly to Ireland from the plantations, which the Privy Council attempted to stop by ordering several vessels to cruise off the coast of Maryland and Virginia. A. P. C., Colonial, 2: 272, order of the Privy Council, August 9, 1694.

⁹⁰ Statutes of the Realm, 7 & 8 William III C 22.

⁹¹ C. S. P., Colonial, 1696-1697, pp. 480-482, Customs Commissioners to the Lords of the Treasury, May 11, 1697.

⁹² Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 8-11.

⁹³ Supposedly a Mr. Clements, said Davenant. Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 7 (note).

⁹⁴ Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 15.

⁹⁵ C. S. P., Ireland, 1633-1647, p. 184, report by the Lord Deputy on the state of Ireland, June 21, 1636.

⁹⁶ Irish Statutes at Large, 17 & 18 Car. II C 9.

⁹⁷ Cal. Treas. Bks., 3, part 1:379, Treasury minute, March 5, 1669-70.

⁹⁸ C. S. P., Domestic, 1690-1691, p. 187, warrant to the Justices and Commissioners for Ireland, December 13, 1690.

⁹⁹ C. S. P., Domestic, 1690-1691, p. 217, speech of the Lords Justices of Ireland (1690).

¹⁰⁰ Irish Statutes at Large, 4 William & Mary C 2.

¹⁰¹ Statutes of the Realm, 7 & 8 William III C 39.

¹⁰² Young, *A Tour in Ireland*, London, 1780, volume 2: 284-285.

¹⁰³ Commons Journals, 12: 338, June 30, 1698.

¹⁰⁴ *Ibid.*, 12: 339, July 2, 1698. Two weeks later he instructed the Earl of Galway to "make effectual laws for the linen manufactures and discourage as far as possible the woolen." Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 29. This decided attitude on the part of the two houses of the English Parliament was due in part to the conviction that something ought to be done to vindicate the English authority in Ireland. The particular event which had called forth this opinion was the publication in Dublin, February, 1698, by William Molyneux, of a book entitled, "The Case of Ireland being bound by Acts of Parliament in England Stated." After giving a history of Ireland's connection with England, the author maintained that the English Parliament had no right to pass laws for Ireland. Ireland, he declared, ought not to be treated as a colony. The Case of Ireland, pp. 104, 148. It seems probable that the book was inspired by the attempt in 1697 to prohibit the exportation of Irish woolens. At any rate it stirred up much hard feeling in Parliament, and the king promised to do all that he could to prevent such sedition. Commons Journals, 12: 337, 339, June 30, July 2, 1698.

¹⁰⁵ Statutes of the Realm, 10 William III C 16.

¹⁰⁶ Arthur Young said that this was not to be doubted for a moment. *Tour of Ireland*, 2: 289.

¹⁰⁷ *Ibid.*, 2: 287.

¹⁰⁸ *Ibid.*, 2: 288.

¹⁰⁹ Irish Statutes at Large, 10 William III C 5. It was levied according to the following rates: broad cloth of 20s. value, 4 s.; serges, bays or any sort of new drapery of 20s. value, 2s.

¹¹⁰ Statutes of the Realm, 3 & 4 Anne C 7.

¹¹¹ Irish Statutes at Large, 4 Anne C 4. S. 5.

¹¹² *Ibid.*, 6 Anne C 9 SS 1, 3. These bounties were re-enacted by the comprehensive law of 19 George II C 6 SS 54, 56.

¹¹³ Irish Statutes at Large, 8 Anne C 2 and Anne C 3.

¹¹⁴ 12 Anne C 16 (Pickering Edition). This law was passed for seven years but was continued from time to time.

¹¹⁵ 3 George I C 21 (Pickering Edition). The Irish duties and subsidies are found in the Irish Statutes at Large, 14 & 15 Car. II C 8, 9. The repeal of the duties is in 4 George I C 6.

¹¹⁶ Irish Statutes at Large, 2 George I C 13 S 3. This law was passed for ten years but was continued from time to time.

¹¹⁷ 23 George II C 32 (Pickering Edition).

¹¹⁸ 20 George III C 6 (Pickering Edition) permitted the exportation of Irish woolens to foreign countries. 20 George III C 10 opened the American, West Indian and African trade to Ireland as freely as it was to Great Britain. 20 George III C 18 opened the Levant trade to Ireland. 6 George IV C 105 S 25 repealed the cattle act of 1680.

History in the Junior and Senior High School

REPORT OF CONFERENCE HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, APRIL 20, 1922

In the spring of 1922 a conference of history teachers was held at the University of Pennsylvania in connection with "Schoolmen's Week," at which the position of history in the curricula of senior and junior high schools was discussed. The aim of the conference was to ascertain the point of view of school administrators rather than that of historians or history teachers. In the following pages more or less extensive reports are given of the formal papers presented at the meeting.—*Editor's Note.*

SHOULD EUROPEAN HISTORY BE TAUGHT IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

By *Frederic P. Woellner, Columbia University.*

The following outline is presented for the consideration of those who are desirous of developing a world consciousness in the early adolescent mind, through the study of European History. It may be considered a brief for the affirmative side of the question, *Should European History Be Taught in the Junior High School?*

1. The majority of children leave school before they are sixteen years of age. If any history beyond that of their own country is to be taught to the majority of our future citizens, it must be offered before the great exodus from our schools takes place. The slight mention of "European Backgrounds to American History" in the lower grades is not sufficient. A thorough course must be offered in the Junior High School.

2. No one can understand the History of the United States without knowing about the history of the leading states of Europe. No one can fully appreciate the present crisis which the nations are facing, without knowing something of their history. No one can apprehend the imminent issues before the world powers without having a grasp of the development of an ever-widening co-operative economy. For the past, present and future, Americans need to know more history beyond that of their own country.

3. The Social Sciences are everywhere gaining a place in the curriculum of the Junior High School. Without an intelligent grasp of history, these sciences are little more than an emotion.

These sciences should be considered as a challenge to European History to readjust itself to meet the vital needs of the present. They can hardly be more than that to those who know the Junior High School.

4. Through European History one may more fully realize the objectives of history than through a more limited study of one country's past. These objectives are generally listed as follows:

Recreation: for leisure as literature
Perspective: for proper time relationships
Use: for aid in solving problems

Shock: for freeing one from the narrow confines of the here and now
Convention: for keeping one "up-to-date"
Instinct: for satisfying a definite curiosity
Values: for knowing the constants in the drama of man,—love, justice, purity, etc.

5. If one were to list the subjects suitable for early adolescents, European History as it might be organized and taught would be near the top. It should be required or made an elective with its nearest competitors.

6. Citizenship is a multiform proposition. The number, variety and intensity of co-operative organizations is constantly increasing. An ever expanding economy is demanding a shifting of emphasis from the smaller to the larger groups. The progressive citizen is required to study his obligations to the local community, the state, the section, the nation, the continent and the world. As time goes on, his provincialism must lessen. He must keep pace with the expanding economy. No subject can better help him make the progressive adaptation that such economy demands, than European or better, world history.

EUROPEAN HISTORY NOT IN THE NINTH YEAR.

By *James M. Glass, Director of Junior High Schools, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction.*

The question of whether European History should be required in the ninth year is submitted for our consideration in this paper. This discussion will be restricted to the ninth year as it concerns the last year of the junior high school and not as it concerns the first year of a four-year high school. Further, the question may be restricted to a discussion of the practicability of offering European History in the ninth year of the junior high school in the light of the present program of Social Studies as organized for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years.

The present course of study in social studies [in Pennsylvania] has been organized in accord with the accepted objectives of the junior high school. Social studies are second to no other major branch of study in the contributions made to the realization of the primary purposes of the junior high school. It, therefore, would seriously compromise the objectives of the junior high school, if any step were taken materially to modify the course of study in general social science. It will be pertinent to consider the primary purposes of the junior high school to which social studies make a contribution not comparable with any other major branch of study. To this end the first two of the five purposes of the junior high school as stated by Briggs will summarize in part the fundamental aims in accord with which each course of study should be constructed in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years.

The first purpose of the junior high school, "to continue common integrating education," finds expression, in largest measure, in the social studies. It must be, therefore, the responsibility of this major branch of the program of studies to interpret American History in its social, community, vocational, and economic bearings upon the youth, many of whom are soon to pass from junior to adult American citizenship. Before the adolescent youth continues his educational career or enters society as a wage-earner, his conscience must be awakened to the need of social co-operation for the upbuilding and maintenance of the society in which he is to live.

The second purpose of the junior high school is "to ascertain and reasonably to satisfy pupils' important immediate and assured future needs." Junior citizenship is more than a preparation for adult citizenship; it is an actual experience with its own immediate needs which must be ascertained and satisfied if the assured needs of American citizenship are to be comprehended and fulfilled. The present is the forerunner of the future. As is the youth, so will be the man. It is the mission of social studies, as one medium of junior high school training, so to direct the activities of adolescent pupils in the present task of ascertaining and satisfying their immediate needs as junior citizens that through this training the assured future needs of adult citizenship may be intelligently comprehended and realized. Junior citizenship and adult citizenship must sustain the relationship of cause and effect.

There must be, therefore, in the junior high school program of studies a program of school activities in which adolescents find "the special field for their activities as junior citizens." They must be trained under control and guidance to live as junior citizens of their school community. It must be the no uncertain responsibility of the teachers of social studies to interpret the social and civic experiences of adolescents in the school community as steps of progressive development in citizenship training. Junior high school general social science must find its counterpart in the applied social science of society itself. The application must be made by the teacher of social studies. School activities and junior citizenship in a junior high school are the means ready at hand for the teacher of American history and community civics to interpret the lessons of the classroom. The teacher of social studies who fails to interpret the significance and parallel of junior citizenship as the counterpart of both past and future American history, has lost a rich opportunity to motivate and mould the citizenship of tomorrow. In other words such a teacher has failed at the point of her greatest potential service to society, which has a right to demand this service.

United States History in the junior high school course of Social Studies is based upon a background of all history. So far, therefore, as European History is the setting of American History, it deserves and has a place in the course of study. It remains only to say, rather arbitrarily, that the junior high school so far has not found a time allotment for social

studies which will permit both social science and European History in its ninth year. Since there is not time for each as a separate course, the junior high school has of the alternatives selected social science.

HISTORY AS A PREPARATION FOR CITIZENSHIP.

By *W. D. Lewis, Deputy Superintendent, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction.*

The function of the public school is to train our young people for effective and helpful participation in our governmental and social order. The new occasions of the present crisis teach as never before the new duty of reorganizing the whole program of the secondary school, of determining its required work by the essential purpose of the school, and of defining the content of the required subjects by their function of training citizens of our social, industrial, and political democracy.

It is the province of the history course in the high school to prepare our young citizens to read the newspapers and magazines, and to participate in the discussion of political, social, and economic problems, to think, and to vote. History can seldom teach them what to think on any specific problem; it can and should teach them to think. It can prepare for a study of economics, sociology, political science, social psychology, and social evolution. It should give an understanding of the fact that these questions are of personal rather than of merely academic concern, and thus insure interested and vigorous participation in the varied activities of citizenship.

The history of the high school should teach us how we have arrived at our present stage of civilization. Whence come the million problems of social co-operation and social control that have brought new evils to displace the old, and that have necessitated unprecedented complexities in our governmental and social co-operation. To illustrate: The steam engine has revolutionized industry once and electricity is transforming it again. "As Robert Owen pointed out, our increased capacity of production through machinery is equivalent to vastly increasing the number of workers in the world without any increase of the number of persons to be cared for." (Robinson, *New History*, page 125.) Aided by improved sanitation and control of diseases, population, especially in the cities, has multiplied beyond precedent. This has thrown a disproportionate burden upon agriculture. In America an unoccupied continent and the improvement in farm machinery have relieved the pressure. England, lacking these advantages, must import perhaps two-thirds of her foods. Germany, seeing a crisis a few decades ahead, precipitates a world war. Russia, lacking a sane organized government, meets this crisis with an upheaval and a collapse of industry and agriculture, and starves.

All these and a hundred other problems must now be solved by an increasingly democratic world in which it is necessary not only for the seers and

leaders to devise remedies, but also—what is quite as difficult—to interpret the problems in such concrete terms as to command the support of the court of final authority—the great democratic masses. We do not know what the problems of tomorrow will be. We have every reason to believe that there will be problems, and that they will differ from those of today. That those who must solve them shall know how they have arisen, that they shall attack them with as nearly a perfect comprehension of the past as possible, is the problem of history instruction in the high school.

The plans of the Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania involve the publication of courses of study in the various subjects which shall be always tentative—always in process of revision as improvements shall be worked out in the great laboratory of the schools of the State. The outline for European history was prepared by the Social Studies Committee under the direction of Dr. J. Lynn Barnard. The present outline is the work of Mr. D. M. Melchior and M. Morris Wolf, of Girard College.

AIMS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

Proper recognition has not been accorded European history in secondary education, chiefly because of a failure properly to evaluate the principles and aims of history teaching. Four of these ends are especially significant for a high school course in European history.

1. To understand the present

The course in history must be sufficiently inclusive and be so taught that the student becomes distinctly aware that our institutions and ideals have been handed down to us and that certain major forces were dominant in making the present. For the high school pupil there is little use in understanding the past except to explain the present.

Two widely accepted and closely related concepts are very useful in assisting the student to understand the world of today. One of them is the concept of the continuity of history. Human beings tend to do this year as they did last. Yesterday's thought and action explains the civilization of today. The student begins to understand the present when he perceives not that we have "arrived," but that we are still "on our way." He should begin to see, too, that peoples and nations are interdependent, chronologically and synchronously. It is only partly true to speak of Oriental history, or of ancient history, or of the history of America, or of Germany. Moreover imperialism did not begin or end with Rome; autocracy did not begin, nor (shall we say) end with Germany; Grecian history is not complete without Egypt, Crete, and Persia; the Church is more than the Vatican, Sarajevo does not explain the World War.

Furthermore in order to understand the present it is vital that the pupil come to appreciate the great part played by science, literature, political philosophy, the yearnings for democracy, agriculture, humanitarianism, invention, and industry in the evolution of modern society. The cultivation of such an aim will subordinate needless political detail.

2. To develop powers of discrimination and independent judgment.

What is good and what is bad in the present radical movement throughout the world? Is a league of nations bound to come? What is the solution of the Far Eastern situation? Is democracy justifying itself?

A clear recognition of these two fundamental ends or aims in secondary school history, set forth above, makes patent, the weakness of those history courses in high schools which limit the field to Europe since 1750. We are all too prone to deprecate that which is not ultra-modern. We are all too forgetful that the institutions which are the bulwark of modern society have their origins in the centuries, yes, the millenniums, of the past. The family, morality, religion, the state, law, commerce, domestication of animals and plants (how little has man added in 2000 years) astronomy, mathematics, art, and literature—these are the heritages of the ages. But how can we develop in the minds of our youth respect and admiration for this heritage, and for man's tremendous struggle in its acquisition, if we tell them that all the history they need to know has happened since 1750? It is beside the point to say that the pupil will have studied the earlier history in the lower grades in a preliminary survey of our ancestors in Europe, and besides, that much of this can be learned in the English course. Such suggestions are unconvincing. Like the teacher, the adolescent pupil can come to appreciate man's struggle and man's heritage only by direct study, and not by reminders or as a by-product of English literature.

Moreover, many events and movements which seem so momentous because they are so near to us shrivel perceptibly when compared with epoch-making achievements of early man. Professor Finney has well pointed out that if we teach only the period since 1750 we are apt to stress too much the economic and political phases of history. Not only industry, transportation, agriculture, invention, but also religion, order, the family, the drama, scientific discovery, art, and philosophy were hoary with age when the Industrial Revolution dawned, and today they are living institutions that cannot be ignored.

3. To cultivate a passion for orderly advancement.

As a corollary of the first aim should come the desire to help build the new out of the old, with sturdy stride, but not too fast. The prophetic phrase of Felix Adler becomes a natural watchword: If we do not have more rapid evolution we shall have rabid revolution.

It is the unique function of history to help us understand the present. In addition, the content of history is remarkably fit for developing judgment and a passion for orderly advance.

4. To prepare the mass of folk for the proper use of leisure.

History should develop a larger appreciation of the art, music, and literature that past and present civilizations offer, in other words, should promote cultural democracy.

THE PLACE OF EUROPEAN HISTORY IN THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Parke Schoch, Principal of West Philadelphia High School for Girls.

What one thinks about history or any other subject of the high school curriculum, is conditioned upon certain fundamentals of program building. First, the aims of the high school must be determined; second, the length of day, with number and length of periods; third, the capacities of pupils.

As to the aims, we shall likely all agree with those stated in Bulletin 35, 1918, Bureau of Education, on the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," with which we are all familiar.

The school day in the ninth year of the junior high school should consist of six 60-minute periods. This will provide time for placing in the program four major studies, each occurring every day, divided between constants and electives, in proportion to suit the varying needs of the pupils. The remaining ten periods of the week should be divided among such subjects and interests as physical education, music, art, practical arts, guidance and school activities. nations bound to come? What is the solution of the make possible supervised study as a necessary part of each period, and will admit of all study, practically, being done within the school hours.

Assuming that general science has been taken by all pupils in the eighth year, history should be one of the required subjects of the ninth year. This should not be European history, however, but rather a world type of history, so that a broad foundation may be laid for such further history study as may be taken later on.

In the tenth year of the senior high school the only required study subject should be English language. European history should be offered as an optional subject, along with mathematics, foreign language, science, and certain special and vocational subjects.

A word at this point about the capacities of pupils,

as this has a bearing on the inclusion or exclusion of European history in the tenth year as a required subject. My observation leads me to advocate strongly a four major subject program for the ninth and tenth years. I do this because of the increasingly low average of capacity of the pupils now coming into the high school. This is accounted for, first, by the operation of the compulsory education laws, which forces into the ninth and tenth grades all kinds of children, many with low intelligence and poor capabilities, and it seems to me we should be able to retain more of them and to do more for them by concentrating their thought and effort upon four fields of study, each occurring every day, rather than by dissipating their energies over five subjects, each occurring four times a week. This point of view necessitates the restriction of the subjects to be taken to four in number each year, and enforces the choice that involves necessarily the placing of history among the electives after the ninth year except American history. One of these four subjects in the cases of more than half the pupils should be a vocational subject, because that percentage of ninth and tenth year pupils will be found in the commercial and mechanical courses, and they are entitled to some subject each year that will prepare them for self-support.

By the end of the tenth year the various processes of elimination have been so effective that less than 50 per cent of those entering in the ninth year remain. We then have a relatively selected group, and we may in the eleventh and twelfth years operate profitably a five major subject program. This will provide not only for compulsory American history in the eleventh year, but also for further social study in the twelfth, probably problems of democracy, for the great mass of the pupils. The rigid requirements of certain of the colleges may still make it necessary occasionally to substitute some other subject for the twelfth year social study, at least until this subject is credited by the colleges.

A Library for History Teachers

Perhaps for no other subject in the school curriculum is there such a body of information and suggestions on teaching methods as is to be found in the twelve volumes *The History Teacher's Magazine* and its successor

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

Nearly all the successful writers of history, a great many of the best history teachers in Secondary Schools and Colleges, and teachers and principals in the Elementary Schools have contributed to its pages in the last decade. There is probably not a phase of history teaching, whether of method or content which has not been treated in the pages of the

BACK NUMBERS NOW AVAILABLE

The publishers still have on hand bound copies of volumes VI to XII, which will be sold while the supply lasts, for *Three Dollars a volume*. Many unbound copies from volume I to volume XII are still available, and will be sold at the uniform price of *twenty-five cents a copy*, although some of the early issues are now very scarce.

These publications are especially valuable for

TEACHERS TRAINING COURSES

in colleges and Normal Schools, as well as for the private libraries of history teachers. Persons interested are urged to write to the publishers while the complete bound volumes are still in stock.

McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY
PHILADELPHIA

Report on History Textbooks used in the Public Schools of New York City

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Nation-wide interest was attracted to the charges made in the fall of 1920 against certain history textbooks used in New York schools. These charges were submitted by Superintendent Ettinger to a special committee of principals and teachers. The following extracts are taken from the report of this committee. No quotations are given concerning individual textbooks, nor will space allow the inclusion of extracts from the monographic studies in which members of the committee reviewed in detail the specific charges against the textbooks.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

March 27, 1922.

DR. WILLIAM L. ETTINGER,
Chairman, Board of Superintendents.

DEAR SIR:

In October, 1920, a letter attacking the histories in use in the public schools of New York City was referred by you to your Committee on Studies and Textbooks for consideration and report.

At your suggestion specific data were asked for to support the general statements made.

After repeated conferences a formal series of charges in writing, containing particulars desired, was filed with your Committee in April, 1921.

These charges and specifications were immediately submitted to you for consideration with the recommendation that the publishers and the authors of the books in question have full and fair opportunity for reply.

Thereupon, with your approval, the parties involved were notified, and late in September, 1921, all the replies were on file.

These replies were duly considered by you with the conclusion that it would be wise to lay the whole matter before a committee of representative schoolroom workers for detailed consideration and close investigation.

Early in October, 1921, this Committee was appointed, on the recommendation of your Committee on Studies and Textbooks, with the following instructions:

1. To establish a set of fundamental principles and reasonable standards for the writing of textbooks on history intended for use in our public schools.
2. To consider in detail the charges made and the replies thereto and, subject to the laws of evidence, to sustain or deny each separate charge by a written opinion setting forth clearly the reasons for the action.
3. To invite open public criticism to the end that our list might, if necessary, be purged of even the slightest taint of impropriety, propaganda, or unpatriotic sentiment.

The Committee consisted of the following-named persons:

EDWARD MANDEL, *Chairman, District Superintendent, Queens*

HAROLD G. CAMPBELL, Principal, Flushing H. S., Queens

MRS. RUFINA A. CARLS, Principal, P. S. 42, Manhattan

AUSTIN G. CLARK, Teacher, Textile H. S., Manhattan

MARY CONLON, Principal, P. S. 30, Bronx

AGNES CRAIG, Teacher, P. S. 3, Bronx

CLYDE R. JEFFORDS, Teacher, Newtown H. S., Queens

KATHERINE KAVANAGH, Asst. to Principal, P. S. 46, Brooklyn

FREDERICK J. MASON, Teacher, P. S. 11, Queens

THOMAS McTIERNAN, Teacher, DeWitt Clinton H. S., Manhattan

ADOLPH MISCHLICH, Teacher, P. S. 97, Manhattan

LUCILLE NICOL, Principal, P. S. 61, Brooklyn

MRS. JOSEPHINE L. NORDMAN, Principal, P. S. 14, Queens

FREDERICK H. PAYNE, Teacher, Eastern District H. S., Brooklyn

HARRY B. PENHOLLOW, Teacher, DeWitt Clinton H. S., Manhattan

BRYAN REILLY, Principal, P. S. 157, Brooklyn

FREDERICK J. REILLY, Principal, P. S. 33, Bronx

ANNA SHORT, Principal, P. S. 28, Manhattan

PLOWDEN STEVENS, Principal, P. S. 44, Bronx

HOWARD M. TRACY, Teacher, Curtis H. S., Richmond

FREDERICK WHITE, Teacher, Morris H. S., Bronx

EDGAR DULES SHIMER, *Chairman, Committee on Studies and Textbooks.*

Report on General Principles and Special Aims

In determining the appropriateness of the selection of material for a public school textbook, the following considerations should be carefully weighed:

Under the compulsory education law children of school age must attend upon either public or private instruction. The parent financially able, may select for his children a private school or a private tutor and thereby determine the nature of the instruction they shall receive, the books they shall use, the character of the teachers who shall instruct them; and the opinions political, social, religious or otherwise which these teachers shall hold. But the parent whose children attend public school has no voice in the disposition of these matters of such vital and far-reaching consequences to the future of his children—his most precious possessions. These matters are determined for him by the Board of Education. Under such circumstances, the parent must be assured beyond all question that the facts taught and the sentiments expressed in the schools are in full accord with the aims and ideals of the public school system. These aims and ideals have been expressed by the Commissioner of Education of the State of New York in language peculiarly apt and appropriate for all time. He wrote:

"A teacher in a public school system . . . must come out in the open and cheerfully and unhesitatingly stand up and make known to the entire community in which he is employed that he is giving his unquestioned support to the government.

"The public schools of any country should be the expression of that country's ideals, the purpose of its institutions and its philosophy of life and government. The schools of America should be an expression of America's ideals, of her democratic institutions and of her philosophy of life and of representative government.

"There has not been a time in the history of the country when the public schools should be engaged more persistently, scientifically, and patriotically in teaching the fundamental principles of America's philosophy of life and government than at the present time. A person who does not, without reservation, utilize all his intellectual powers and exert all his influence as a teacher in the public schools to make such schools an effective and efficient agency in the accomplishment of this great function of a school system is not a suitable person to be charged with the duties of the sacred office of teacher. A teacher who is unwilling to follow this course fails to live up to his duty as teacher and fails utterly to support the government.

"If a teacher cannot give unquestioned support to the country his place is not in the school. I will not say where it is, but of all places in the world he should not be in the school as the representative of his country."

The textbook is a teacher. It must be judged by the standards applicable to the teacher. A textbook which fails to give unquestioning support to the aims and ideals of our public school system has no place in the public school.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

The formulation of aims and standards by the Commissioner of Education denies, by necessary implication, that the writer of a textbook for use in the public schools has absolute freedom in the selection or in the interpretation of historical material. Predetermined aims and standards predetermine selection and interpretation.

The textbook must contain no statement in derogation or in disparagement of the achievements of American heroes. It must not question the sincerity of the aims and purposes of the founders of the Republic or of those who have guided its destinies.

The textbook must contain no material which tends to arouse political, racial, or religious controversy, misunderstanding or hatred.

The textbook must contain no material tending to arouse misunderstanding or hatred between the United States and any other nation.

The selection of material must be restricted to that which contributes most directly and essentially to the attainment of the legitimate objectives of the public school system as formulated by the State Commissioner of Education.

The writer must be prepared at all times to "come out in the open and cheerfully and unhesitatingly stand up and make known to the entire community, the aims and the ideals, the purposes and the motives, which actuated him in the selection of his material and in his interpretation thereof."

SPECIFIC AIMS

1. To acquaint the pupils with the basic facts and movements, political, industrial, and social, of American history.

2. To emphasize the principles and motives that were of greatest influence in the formation and development of our government.

3. To establish ideals of patriotic and civic duty.

4. To awaken in the pupil a desire to emulate all praiseworthy endeavor.

5. To emphasize the importance of weighing permissible evidence in forming judgments.

6. To present the ethical and moral principles exemplified in the lives of patriotic leaders.

7. To inspire in the pupil an appreciation of the hardships endured and the sacrifices made in establishing and defending American ideals.

8. To develop in the pupil a love for American institutions and the determination to maintain and defend them.

9. To bring the light of reason and experience to bear on radical or alien theories of economic and political systems.

10. To enable the pupil to interpret the present in terms of the past and to view intelligently the functions and the value of existing institutions.

DISCUSSION OF GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND SPECIAL

AIMS

In order to give a clearer and more definite idea of the scope and intent of the general principles and special aims formulated by the Committee we submit herewith a discussion of said general principles and special aims.

A

THE PRIMARY PROBLEM IN WRITING A HISTORY TEXT-BOOK IS PROPRIETY OF SELECTION OF MATERIAL

In his "Teaching of History" Professor Johnson says: "History is everything that ever happened."

Dean Russell says: "The materials of history have been in the making by every person born into the world from Adam down."

In its broadest sense therefore history embraces every occurrence, significant or insignificant.

As the pages of a textbook are limited, no material should be used unless it is essential and of the highest educational value. The child's time must not be taken up with facts which do not measure up to this standard.

B.

THE TEXTBOOK WRITER IS NOT A HISTORIAN

Strictly speaking the textbook writer is not a historian. The historian writes for the open market. He has the privilege of selecting and organizing his material in accordance with his own views. He may be an impartial writer or he may be a partisan. The textbook writer has not this freedom. He is subject to the limitations imposed upon the teacher.

The function of the textbook writer is to furnish the teacher with the material the latter needs to carry out the aims and purposes set by the course of study. As Dean Russell says:

"Selection of material for a course in history becomes a professional task, quite as important as the task of supplying the material itself. The one is the task of the professional teacher, the other of the professional historian."

It is for the teacher to determine what material is

needed. It is for the textbook writer to supply it. Unfortunately, an examination of the prefaces in various textbooks shows that some textbook writers do not take this view.

From these prefaces, it appears that the writers have not written to meet the needs of any particular course of study or combination of courses.

Objection was made to each of these prefaces on the ground that the writer "believes a textbook may be used to influence our international relations."

We believe that a textbook writer who seeks to influence our international relations is a propagandist. Under our constitution it is for the federal government, in the first instance, to determine what our foreign relations shall be. The children in attendance in our public schools must not be used directly or indirectly to influence official action in such matters.

C

THE BURDEN OF PROOF RESTS UPON HIM WHO MAKES A DEROGATORY STATEMENT

As a rule derogatory statements have little or no educational value. They instinctively arouse resentment. Only when a man has been guilty of an act of great moral turpitude is a discussion of his act likely to lead to beneficial consequences. Nero's cruelty and Arnold's treason are illustrations.

He that alleges the commission of a wrongful act assumes the burden of proof. The evidence, in substantiation, must be clear and convincing, and the more so, when it affects the reputation of a national hero. The graver the consequences of a charge, the higher the station of the person assailed, the greater should be the care exercised in the making of a charge.

A derogatory statement partakes of the nature of a libel. A libel has been defined as:

"A publication by writing, printing, picture, effigy, sign, or otherwise, which exposes any living person or the memory of a deceased person, to contempt or ridicule. For example, to charge a member of Congress that he is a misrepresentative in Congress, and a groveling office-seeker, is libelous, whether made concerning the living or the dead." (Thomas *vs.* Croswell, 7 Johns, 264; Ryckman *vs.* Delevan, 25 Wend, 113; Miller *vs.* Donovan, 16 Misc., 453.)

It is not difficult to find statements in some of the textbooks which come within the above rule.

Unless therefore, the facts are true (where the charge rests upon the facts) or unless the inferences (where the charge rests upon inferences) are such as reasonable minds must draw, the author is not justified in making a derogatory statement.

If there is doubt as to the truthfulness of the facts or if reasonable minds may draw different inferences from the facts, the charge is not sustained by clear and convincing evidence. The person whose reputation is assailed is entitled to the benefit of the doubt.

In order to avoid any misapprehension we desire to state at this point that even if the derogatory statement is true, it should not be made unless essential, necessary and of high educational value.

D

PROBABLE REASON FOR THE PRESENCE OF MUCH OF THE MATERIAL TO WHICH OBJECTIONS HAVE BEEN MADE.

Probably the factor principally responsible for the

presence of objectionable material in the textbooks under investigation is that the writers have not divided their material into topic-units, and have not formulated aims, sufficiently extensive in scope to permit marshalling the facts in due subordination. There should be a few large topics and aims, rather than many.

The selection of material, and the organization of topics and aims are fixed by certain well-known limitations. Among these, the chief are:

1. The majority of the pupils in the elementary grades will never attend upon higher instruction.
2. Pupils in the elementary grades are interested in broad, powerful descriptions—vivid and colorful.
3. Pupils in the elementary grades are not sufficiently developed mentally to permit of meticulous exactness, fine-spun differentiations or philosophic analyses.

It is sufficient to acquaint the pupil with the salient and essential facts. "The facts which will lead him to understand that liberty is a priceless jewel; that he should be proud of his country; and that he should yield obedience to constituted authority."

The aim is expressed in the "Estimate of 8B Pupils' Attainments," prescribed by the New York City Board of Education, as follows:

"A knowledge of the principal events in the history of the United States and of related European history as laid down in the elementary course of study; and an elementary understanding of the organization and workings of the federal, the state and the municipal government."

In the light of the foregoing it is manifest that many, if not all of the statements in connection with the Revolutionary War and of the War of 1812, to which objection was made, could readily be eliminated from the textbooks under investigation.

What should be the aim in teaching the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812?

The Revolutionary War

The story of the Revolution can be told under about six topic-units. Throughout, however, there should be but one aim: to impress upon the pupils the sublime spectacle of thirteen weak colonies spread along fifteen hundred miles of sea coast poorly equipped and poorly disciplined giving battle to the strongest military and naval power in the world. In addition the Colonists were surrounded by hostile Indians and in their midst was a large body of Tories working at times openly, at times secretly, but, at all times, against them.

In telling this story what matters whether the Revolutionary War was really a war of secession! What matters whether King George III or his ministers were mainly responsible for the war! So far as a pupil in the elementary grades is concerned these are academic questions. What the pupil needs to know is this: The Colonists believed themselves to be oppressed, and so believing, they stood ready to sacrifice all in the cause of freedom. The pupil must be taught that if liberty is to continue "to dwell in

our midst" he must be prepared, should occasion arise, to make similar sacrifices.

There is no necessity for harrowing tales or embittered words. Things were done by Englishmen, and things were done by Americans, which should not have been done. Such acts occur in every great struggle. There is so much glory for us in the Revolutionary War that there should be no desire to harbor the memory of mistakes.

Everything essential is accomplished when it is made plain to the pupils: that the Colonists had just grievances; that they rebelled because they could obtain no redress; that they were inspired by a fierce love of liberty; that they counted neither the cost nor the odds against them; that the dominating spirit of the Revolution is found in the words of Nathan Hale: "I regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

The pupil should be inspired by vivid and glowing pictures of the sacrifices made by the patriots, the things they did and the things they said. In the words of Abbe Reynal:

"With what grandeur, with what enthusiasm, should I not speak of those generous men who erected this grand edifice by their patience, their wisdom and their courage, HANCOCK, FRANKLIN, ADAMS! Posterity shall know them all. Their honored names shall be transmitted to it by a happier pen than mine. Brass and marble shall show them to remotest ages. In beholding them shall the friend of freedom feel his heart palpitate with joy, feel his eyes float in delicious tears. Under the bust of one of them has been written, 'He wrested thunder from the heaven and the sceptre from tyrants.' Of the last words of this eulogy shall the whole of them partake."

Second War With England

The objections to the accounts of the War of 1812 are mainly to the effect that the writers have taken a biased and partisan attitude. If the writer will bear in mind that the sectional differences which existed in this country with reference to the War of 1812 were the natural differences and misunderstandings which arise when two opposing tendencies are being harmonized he will refrain from such characterizations as "War Hawks," or from cynical, sarcastic or sneering remarks concerning the prosecution of the war. He will understand that it was natural and under the circumstances inevitable that in the crisis which confronted the country the leadership should fall upon Clay, a man from the West, who was free from the traditions of the Revolutionary period. The disagreements between the Peace Party and the War Party were fundamentally due to the fact that "the spirit of individualism" was still strong, particularly in the New England States.

As Mace says in "Method in History":

"This approach goes on more rapidly than ever before, for the need of each for the other (meaning nationality and democracy) is more continuous and pressing. The above growth was checked and limited by the rise of a counter movement mainly confined to New England and the Middle States. This anti-national sentiment connected itself with sympathy for England, and thus brought upon itself the odium of being unpatriotic."

E

EMASCULATED ACCOUNTS OF WARS IN ORDER TO ENCOURAGE PEACE

Objection has been made to the treatment in some

of the textbooks of the wars in which we have been engaged. The objections are to the effect that the accounts are emasculated. In reply it is strenuously urged that "the surest way to end war, is to sing the praises of peace and to say little of war and the heroes of war."

We are all committed to the proposition that it is our duty to co-operate to the fullest extent to help put an end to warfare.

President Harding says:

"If I catch the conscience of America we'll lead the world to outlaw war."

Lloyd George says:

"Above all, making sure that war shall henceforth be declared to be a crime punishable by the laws of nations."

Marshal Foch says:

"War in itself and for itself is the greatest crime in the world, and the glory of victory pursued for itself is a crime. This world is made for peace and for work in peace time. The first duty is to work for people, not to fight."

It has been said that:

"War is a crime, it is wholesale murder, it is a substitute for justice, reason, civilization and world safety."

We join unreservedly in condemnation of war when waged for aggrandizement—in defiance of the principles of justice and of equity. The Revolutionary War and the War of 1812 were not such wars. An emasculated account of these wars cannot be defended.

War in defence of freedom or in vindication of righteousness, justice and equity should be vividly portrayed, and the praises of its heroes should be joyously sung. Thus only can we raise a citizenry willing to die for the country.

F

OUR HEROES

Objection has been made that some of the textbooks contain statements in derogation of our national heroes. In reply it has been urged that the statements are true, and that attention should be called to the weaknesses of our heroes or we will esteem them too highly.

Truth is no defense to the charge of impropriety. "The Aristidean sense of justice" which would spread upon the pages of a textbook the weaknesses of our heroes to assure itself that our children will not entertain for them a gratitude too deep or a veneration too exalted is a sentiment which may find a place and an audience somewhere. That place must not be the public school; that audience must not be the children in attendance.

The assurance that posterity will hold our heroes in grateful remembrance is one of the most powerful incentives to heroic achievement. To preserve unsullied the name and fame of those who have battled that we might enjoy the blessings of liberty, is a solemn and sacred obligation. Hero worship may have its faults. In comparison with the vice of ingratitude, they are negligible.

Superintendent of Schools William L. Ettinger has said:

"Regard for historical accuracy does not require that elementary histories contain statements with regard to the foibles or weaknesses of any of the great historical

figures which have always been the subject of admiration and reverence. We should not direct the attention of immature minds to the mistakes, infirmities, or peccadilloes of historical characters, because their greatness rather than their failings enabled them to be creative forces in our national life."

We are not interested in the petty weaknesses of our heroes. We are interested in those sterling qualities of mind and heart which made their heroism possible.

"Children live and suffer with their heroes. They love to imitate the great and noble characters with whom they are brought in contact. They awaken in them the spirit of emulation." (McMurray.)

To call the pupil's attention to the weaknesses of our heroes is not only of doubtful educational value but it may result in harmful consequences. The pupil may well reason that it is safe to indulge in such lapses as they do not interfere with success.

In the absence of reasons which unquestionably justify his doing so, the textbook writer must not spread upon the pages of his book the shortcomings of our heroes. We prefer to listen rather to the words of President Harding, Abraham Lincoln and Pericles.

President Harding says:

"You and your associates are going to voice the last testimony of love and affection from living comrades for their dead. You may be very sure that the whole nation will echo your sentiments and feel with you the thrill of a common pride and common sorrow; pride in the glorious service, and historical achievement of these our brothers who gave freely all exacted from them. They have set for all of us the perfect example of service and sacrifice, and it is well that their associates should, through this tribute, remind the nation of its eternal obligation to prove worthy of the devotion its sons have ever shown for it."

President Lincoln said:

"But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here."

Pericles said:

"So died these men as became Athenians. For this offering of their lives they each of them individually received that renown which never grows old, and for a sepulchre not so much that in which their bones have been deposited but that noblest of shrines wherein their glory is laid up to be eternally remembered upon every occasion on which deed or story shall call for its commemoration. For heroes have the whole earth for their tomb, and in lands far from their own, where the column with its epitaph declares it, there is enshrined in every breast, a record unwritten with no tablet to preserve it, except that of the heart."

G

PROPAGANDA

It has been charged that some textbooks contain propaganda. In reply some have alleged that all who make the charge are persons opposed to friendly relations with Great Britain. The reply cannot be sustained, as appears from the following editorial in *The American Legion Weekly* of October 7, 1921:

"The country has known for some time that school textbooks on American history are being revised on the theory that the elimination or correction of obvious untruths or distorted truths concerning England's rela-

tions with this country, notably during the Revolutionary War, would promote the cause of international friendship. . . . If the purpose of some of the authors was not to give the lasting impression to the school children of this country that the Revolutionary War was an unjustifiable war, that is likely to be the effect of their work. . . . It will be regretted if what appeared to be a meritorious undertaking has been exploited with propaganda which every fair-minded American must resent."

It cannot be contended that the American Legion is actuated by malice toward any country.

The State Commissioner of Education has said:

"The public schools of any country should be the expression of that country's ideals, the purpose of its institutions and its philosophy of life and government. The schools of America should be an expression of America's ideals, of her democratic institutions and of her philosophy of life and of representative government."

It is impossible for a writer to be a propagandist and to give the best that is in him to his country. A propagandist's book cannot be "an expression of America's ideals, of her democratic institutions and of her philosophy of life and of representative government."

If one may propagandize for, another may propagandize against. The result would be intolerable.

H

CONTROVERSIAL TOPICS

As far as possible, the writer of a textbook should avoid controversial topics. The public schools are maintained by the public funds. The taxpayers are of various creeds and political beliefs. Their feelings must be respected.

However impartially the writer may try to deal with a controversial topic, it is impossible for him to eliminate completely his personal views and prejudices. The pages of a textbook are limited. Only a limited amount of material can be used, even though the topic is of the utmost importance. Impartiality is impossible unless there is an adequate presentation of the essential facts.

In the absence of very strong reasons to the contrary, the discussion of controversial topics should be avoided in elementary school textbooks.

I

PATRIOTISM

It is objected that some of the textbooks make no attempt to inculcate patriotism by bringing to the attention of pupils the best in the lives, words, and deeds of our patriots; and that in some of the books, too much attention is given to the utterances and achievements of the heroes of other countries.

In reply, it is urged that true patriotism does not require that we magnify our country at the expense of others; that a "narrow-visioned" patriotism means that the Englishman will become more English; the German, more German; and the American, more American.

We are not unmindful of the force of the reply. We must insist, however, that in the elementary grades, our primary concern is to acquaint the pupils with the deeds and words of our own heroes, and with the traditions of our own land.

Patriotism is not "egotism." To make certain that the pupils in the elementary grades are thoroughly

familiar with our own heroes before we introduce them to the heroes of other lands is neither "narrow-visioned" nor evidence of "international hatred."

We do not agree with the sentiment that: "Patriotism is a force effective only for war." Or that it is "Bellicose nationalism disguised in sheep's clothing of self-righteousness."

To inspire the pupil with love and reverence for his country, we must acquaint him with the best that his country has achieved.

SUMMARY FINDINGS OF THE COMMITTEE AS AMENDED BY THE BOARD OF SUPERINTENDENTS

The specific findings and recommendations of the Committee may be found in the stated aims in the report and in the critical analyses of the subjects presented in the monographs. As a result of careful consideration and discussion of the charges as a whole, the Committee agrees upon the following findings:

1. There is no evidence to support the charge that the textbook writers whose books were examined were intentionally unpatriotic. However, the paragraphs complained of in their books indicate an attitude of mind toward the founders of the Republic which, in our judgment, is entirely reprehensible.
2. There is no evidence to support the charge that any of the textbooks examined was written as a result of unwholesome propaganda. Some of the writers frankly stated that they believed there ought to be more friendly relations between Great Britain and the United States, and that they wrote their histories from that standpoint.
3. The usefulness of some of the books examined is impaired because the authors have written from the point of view of a critical historian rather than from the point of view of a teacher.
4. The pupils in our public schools should not be taught the personal weaknesses of our national leaders.
5. The principal faults of the textbook writers are:
 - A. Failure to realize that many of the facts of history should be taught in the elementary grades, not as ends, but as means to ends; such as love for law and order, respect for constituted authority, appreciation of the institutions of the country and its ideals.
 - B. Failure to describe adequately and vividly many of the most inspiring events in our history, though there is available a vast fund of material of the highest educational value.

Illustrations: Some of the accounts of the Battle of Bunker Hill; the surrender of Cornwallis; the Battle between the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*.

- C. The inclusion of statements and characterizations concerning our national heroes and our civic leaders which are either offensive, or of such doubtful propriety, that they are out of place in a public school textbook.

Illustrations: "Jefferson was a demagogue, a liar and an atheist"; "John Hancock was a smuggler"; "Samuel Adams was a political boss."

- D. The discussion of controversial topics, of which a fair presentation of the essential facts involved requires far more space than is available within the limited pages of a textbook.

Illustrations: The factional issues in the Jacksonian period; Hamilton's financial policy.

- E. The use of the textbook for the promulgation and the exploitation of the writer's personal beliefs in disregard of curriculum requirements, and in violation of reasonable limitations on his freedom of utterance.

Illustrations: The validity of the reasons set forth in the Declaration of Independence in justification of the Revolution; the justifiability of our Declaration of War against England in 1812.

- F. The use of offensive illustrations, and cartoons.

Illustrations: The cartoon on Lincoln; and the cartoon on Woodrow Wilson (see monograph on cartoons).

- G. Failure to realize that the usefulness of a textbook is determined by the presentation of material that makes for good American citizenship.

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Pupil Management of Class Activities

BY HOWARD C. HILL, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

To the thoughtful student the irregular and unchartered educational careers of many men of genius cause doubts to arise at times concerning the value of the detailed and explicit directions ordinarily given to the pupils in the schools of today. Most of the great historians, for example, were educated contrary to all rules and foreign to all systems. Gibbon during childhood browsed among books at his pleasure; entered Oxford when fourteen with, as he said, an exceptional knowledge of things usually unknown; left the university before completing any course; read omnivorously, among other things perusing all Roman literature before the age of twenty-one; served in the army (an experience which he states proved invaluable when he came to write the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*); prepared his own guide-book before traveling in Europe; in short, was in large part his own mentor and followed his own bent in his work. Buckle, the author of the *History of Civilization*, also had a most unusual education. Physically weak, he was sent to a private school on condition that he might take whatever he pleased—as much or as little. Some time later, to the great joy of his parents, he won the prize in mathematics. As a reward they promised him whatever he might ask for,—and to their amazement he asked at once that he be taken out of school! Up to the age of twenty-eight he cared for practically no books, except *Pilgrim's Progress*, Shakespeare's plays, the *Arabian Nights*, and *Don Quixote*. Then, almost overnight, he awoke intellectually; took a live interest in history; traveled for years throughout Europe acquiring language after language until he had mastered nineteen; and finally wrote his great book—a book which in spite of its eccentricities had a remarkable influence directly and indirectly on the thinking of historians and economists. Did space permit a similar story could be told of the educational experiences of Fustel du Coulanges, Michelet, Hodgkin, and our own matchless Charles Henry Lea—men who rank as leaders in historiography, but who never had a formal scientific historical training except as they acquired it for themselves and by their own efforts.

Genius, of course, is superior to ordinary rules, and methods or conditions advantageous for its development might well prove ruinous for persons of ordinary mental endowment. Nevertheless, one cannot but wonder whether a plan of education, or a lack of plan which did so much for persons such as those just mentioned might not contain something of value for the rest of mankind.

At all events, this was an idea which lay back of the experiment to be described.¹ By this experiment

I hoped to accomplish three things: first, to develop a power of initiative among pupils—to stimulate them to think out and propose methods, projects, and enterprises; second, to arouse a keen interest in civics, an interest which seemed to be lacking, especially among the girls, under ordinary class procedure; third, to make the meaning of certain things in civics clear by having the pupils do them—to teach what a town meeting was by having the class meet at one, to show what a constitution was for and how it was made by having them make and adopt one for their own use, to help them see what democracy is by having them pass and obey laws. In the fourth place, I hoped to have the class conduct its activities in such a way as to demonstrate the rules which govern public assemblies, the manner of presiding at public meetings, how motions are made, discussed, and decided—in short, to inculcate in a practical way the rudiments of parliamentary law. A fifth aim was to correct slovenly methods of speech and address—to teach pupils by actual practice to rise, to express their ideas on a given subject in a connected effective way without help or suggestion from teacher or classmates by question or otherwise; in brief, to provide in the class-room a real audience situation rather than to afford merely an opportunity for a formal recitation.

Having decided to give the plan a trial, I next proceeded to put it in operation. In order to remain true to the leading motive—that of making the pupils responsible for the undertaking—I decided to explain the plan, call their attention to what seemed to be its good features, point out some of the anticipated weak points, and then see if they cared to try it. Accordingly, one morning we talked the matter over during the regular recitation period and the class then voted by a large majority to try the experiment. A committee was appointed to draft a constitution and was ordered to report the next day. After the committee had made its first rough draft, I met with it and offered a few suggestions. The report was given next day: some amendments were made by the class, the constitution was adopted, officers were elected, and the experiment was formally launched.

The officers of the Civics Club, the name adopted by the class, were President, Vice-President, and Secretary. Each officer held his position for one week only and was not eligible for re-election to the same office; the purpose of this restriction was to give every member of the club a chance to hold as many different offices as the time available in the remainder of the school year permitted. Every Friday a nominating committee was appointed by the President to suggest nominations for the various offices. It reported Monday and its report was usually accepted by a unanimous vote. The election of officers ordinarily required less than five minutes.

¹ Both the origin and numerous details of this experiment were suggested by an admirable article written several years ago by Miss Lotta A. Clark. This article, "A Good Way to Teach History," was published in the *School Review*, Vol. XVII, pp. 255-266.

The duties of the various officers can best be seen from the way the meetings were conducted. The President called the club to order and the Secretary called the roll and read the minutes of the previous meeting. The minutes contained not only a report of any business which might have come before the club, but also a summary of the subjects which had been discussed at the previous meeting. In this way the work of the preceding day was reviewed before the regular assignment was taken up. Next in order was "special business." Under this head were considered any matters of a business character not associated with civics proper, such as reports of committees and election of officers. "Unfinished business" was next in order. This consisted of any subjects which might have been discussed one day unsatisfactorily or which might have led to some question which no one in the class could answer; these were noted by the Secretary as unfinished business and were now called for. In this way the class was held responsible for all matters that might come before it and was led accordingly to do considerable reading outside the text. Occasionally I suggested interesting articles in magazines or helpful passages in books which explained points or topics left over as unfinished business or which were to be discussed the following day.

After these matters (roll-call, special business, and unfinished business) came the formal work of the club, the "discussion of the day," as it was called. The President now announced the topic for discussion, such as "The Powers of Congress" or "The Duties of the President," and declared the meeting open to all who cared to speak upon the subject. After the first speaker had finished, other pupils were given opportunity to make corrections or further contributions. When the discussion on the first topic was finished, a second was introduced by the President. The discussion continued in this way until the assignment was covered or the time available came to an end.

I was known as the Executive Officer. I took my seat regularly in the rear of the room; had supreme power to veto any action of the club—a power which it was never necessary to exercise. The last five minutes of the period were assigned to me for the purpose of correcting any errors that had been allowed to pass without notice during the discussion, of making any suggestions which seemed necessary, and for summarizing the work of the day.

The constitution was as follows:

CONSTITUTION

Preamble.

We, the members of the civics class of the Deerfield Township High School, in order to promote interest in the study of civil government and to cultivate responsibility and capability, do ordain and establish this constitution.

Article One. Name.

The name of this organization shall be the Civics Club.

Article Two. Membership.

The club shall consist of all the members of the

civics class of the Deerfield Township High School, including the instructor.

Article Three. Officers.

Sec. One. The officers of this club shall be a president, vice-president, and a secretary.

Sec. Two. The term of office shall be one week. Election shall take place each Monday.

Sec. Three. A committee of three to suggest names for the several offices shall be appointed by the outgoing president on the Friday preceding election.

Sec. Four. An officer cannot be re-elected to a second term in the same position.

Article Four. Duty of Officers.

Sec. One. Duties of President. It shall be the duty of the president to preside at all meetings of the club, to enforce strict parliamentary order, and to assign the discussion for the following day.

Sec. Two. Duty of Vice-President. It shall be the duty of the vice-president to preside at all meetings in the absence of the president; at such time he shall have the full power of president.

Sec. Three. Duties of Secretary. It shall be the duty of the secretary to call the roll at every meeting, to keep a record of the proceedings of each meeting including a brief summary of the important facts considered in the previous discussion and a record of all unfinished business. The secretary shall also keep a credit record of each member of the club.

Article Five. The Meetings of the Club.

Sec. One. Order of Business. The president shall call the meeting to order. The secretary shall call the roll and give a report of the previous meeting. The president shall then call for any special business. He shall next call for unfinished business. The meeting will then be opened for the discussion of the day.

Sec. Two. Privileges of Membership. Every member of the club shall have the privilege of participating in the discussion at every meeting. He may speak a second time, providing all the members shall first have had an opportunity to address the club.

Sec. Three. Executive Officer. The instructor in this course shall be known as the Executive Officer and shall have full power whenever necessary. The last five minutes of the meeting shall be given to him, in which time he shall summarize the discussion of the day.

Article Six. Amendments.

A vote of two-thirds of the members present shall be required to amend the constitution and by-laws. An amendment must be proposed at least one day before it can be voted upon.

By-Laws.

Article One. Procedure.
In all questions of parliamentary procedure "Robert's Rules of Order" shall be the guide.

Article Two. Recognition.

A member of the club shall always be entitled to recognition by the chair when he rises upon a point of order, a matter of personal privilege, or a question of information.

But what about marks? How were the grades managed? The importance of this problem was felt by the entire class. After an animated discussion of various methods, the following scheme was adopted. Grades were to be determined by a combination of marks in recitation and marks in quizzes and tests. The recitation was estimated as being worth two-thirds of the month's grade; the monthly oral quiz, which was conducted by the instructor, and the regular monthly written test as being worth one-third.

Recitation grades were determined thus: the secretary kept a record of the number of times the various members contributed something worth while to the class discussion. The executive officer also kept a record. At the end of each week the secretary and the executive officer met and checked up accounts. If there were any differences, we compromised on them. The passing mark in recitation was determined as follows: the pupil who had worthily participated in the discussion most frequently—say twenty times during the week—was estimated at one hundred per cent; in order to have a passing mark, it was decided that a member must have participated half as many times as the leading pupil in the class, or in the case cited, ten times; this record would be evaluated as seventy-five per cent, the passing mark in the school. Variations between the highest grade and the passing mark were easily ascertained by simple mathematical computations.

In order to prevent the "bright" pupils from monopolizing the time, it was provided that no member of the club should be allowed to speak twice until every other member had had a chance. If persons who had not spoken did not embrace an opportunity, then any one who rose had the right to the floor. If two or more arose at the same time, the President recognized whichever one he chose—usually the one who as a rule talked the least. In case the President recognized the wrong person, such as recognizing one who had already spoken when another person who had as yet taken no part in the discussion was on the floor, some member of the club or the secretary would make the point of order that the person recognized was not entitled to the floor. This part of the plan and, indeed, the entire marking system, worked very well.

The chief defects which appeared in this method of teaching civics follow. In the first place, the weak pupils sometimes failed to do their part. When the continual prodding to which they had become accustomed during years of school life was taken away, they often lacked the necessary energy to participate of their own volition. Some of these members of the class, however, seemed to awake to new life and became good pupils. On the whole, however, the plan did not solve the weak pupil problem.

In the second place, there was a tendency at times for certain pupils to prepare well on one or two topics and to neglect the rest of the assignment. This tendency was corrected in part by the monthly quiz and the test and also by the fact that a pupil could never be sure that he would get to speak on the par-

ticular topic or topics upon which he had prepared: the president might recognize some one else. On the whole, this tendency did not prove as great a defect as I had anticipated. Judged by the monthly tests, the class as a whole mastered the subject very satisfactorily.

A third and more serious weakness in the plan was that some phases of the work were not so well developed nor so well explained as one usually desires and secures in ordinary class procedure. Many points to be made well must be made at the psychological moment, when the matter is under discussion and interest is high. Naturally, it was impossible to make these points if the instructor adhered to the plan as outlined and kept in the background. Many of the points were explained at the summing-up time allotted to the executive officer, but the explanations were usually not so effective as they would have been had they been made when the matter was fresh in mind.

Notwithstanding these drawbacks, the experiment as a whole seemed to be worth while. At the end of the semester the pupils were more capable of acting for themselves. Throughout the course the lessons were planned and assigned by the various presidents; the girls were awakened to a new interest in the subject; recitations came voluntarily; effectiveness in oral expression notably improved. Various activities of merit were planned and carried out by the class: at their suggestion one day in the week was set aside for current events; debates on live topics were occasionally held; a mock trial was staged after school hours in the main assembly hall. To this the rest of the school was invited and came in a body. Unfortunately the jury disagreed and the prisoner had to be discharged. The account of the trial, as given in the school paper, follows:

THE MOCK TRIAL.

"Monday afternoon, May 10th, the Civics class conducted a murder trial in the Assembly Hall. Lester Levin was the prisoner, John Thompson, who was being tried for the murder of James Wilson, president of the El Dorado Mining Company. The facts in the case were these: The prisoner and his brother Will (Clinton Fritsch) held twenty shares of stock. On January 26th the stock dropped in open market seventy-five points. Thompson wanted Wilson to make good; Wilson said he would. The brothers, on January 28th, were in Mr. Wilson's private office. Mr. Wilson drew up a check for the amount demanded by the brothers.

"Will went to the bank to get the stock certificate. While he was gone Wilson tried to bully John and tore up the check. John became angry and after some hot words drew a revolver belonging to Wilson from a pigeonhole on the latter's desk and fired.

"The firing took place about 4 o'clock. When persons who heard the shot ran to the office they forced the door and found Mr. Wilson on the floor, dead, and John Thompson bending over him, apparently very much frightened. The witnesses in the case were William O'Neil, Gertrude Nevins, Clinton Fritsch, Richard Lutz, (Coroner) Mark Byers, Earle McPherson, Helen Sullivan, Mary Phillips, Harold

Harbough, Mr. A. R. Williams (Mayor of Highland Park), and Hazel Bailey. The prosecuting attorneys were William Wrenn and Priscilla Norenberg. The attorneys for the defense were Harry Bock and Mary King.

"The jury, which had previously been sworn in, was composed of six members: Brand, Gladys Spencer, Harriet Leaming, Barker, Darby, and Stevens. Ferne Greene was expelled since it was proved she was governed by prejudices. Jessie Taylor was clerk and Mr. Hill presided as Judge.

"The proceedings were taken down in shorthand by Maud Chamberlain and William McNanley. The "court room" was crowded and at 2.30 the judge called the court to order. The trial was well conducted, good evidence being given all the way through.

"In summing up the case both William Wrenn and Harry Bock did remarkably well. The jury would come to no decision being one in favor of acquittal and five in favor of capital punishment. It was finally brought down to one year's imprisonment, but the one member still desired acquittal."

The practice of changing officers every week gave all the members some actual experience in holding office and by the close of the year many of them were able to preside over a meeting creditably. All in all, the aim of stimulating the self-reliance of pupils and of making them more efficient and responsible seemed to be realized. Finally, the pupils liked the plan: at the end of the year the chief criticism they had to make was that the scheme had not been introduced at an earlier date.

A High School Civic Project

BY J. B. LAMBERT, A. M., DEPARTMENT OF CITIZENSHIP, DU BOIS (PA.) HIGH SCHOOL.

There is no course in the curriculum which has undergone such radical changes in both content and method as has civics. One need only briefly survey the field of civic instruction over a period covered by the last fifteen years to see the remarkable changes that have taken place. Up to the time when Mr. William Arthur Dunn published his "Community and the Citizen," civics was a highly formal, exceedingly uninteresting and greatly dreaded course of study. That was in 1907. Now, from the standpoint of content, one would scarcely recognize the course as being related to the old civics, and, from the standpoint of method, one would need a vivid imagination indeed to discover any similarity whatever. The project method, used with much success in other studies, has, when given a fair trial, proved of infinite value in the teaching of civics. Its possibilities are unlimited because it is pedagogically, psychologically and common-sensibly sound. It works. The success of the project with which this article is concerned is due entirely to that fact.

The idea of making and publishing a civic-class survey of our own city of Du Bois was inspired by a sentence in the Introduction to the "Community and the Citizen." Mr. Dunn says: "If civics instruction is to be vital, the object of study must be, not the pages of the textbook, but the actual community of which the pupil is a member." No teacher can fully realize the tremendous significance of that sentence and long retain the old formal idea of civic instruction. So our High School civics classes, numbering nearly two hundred pupils, determined to launch out into the deep, to cut loose from the time-honored moorings to textbooks and to search out the fascinating mystery of community life in all its manifold ramifications as actually existing in our own city.

We first realized that we must have a definite aim. We had not gone far in search of one until we found that we might have several. However, we found that

there was one ultimate aim and that all lesser aims could be made contributory to it. Our list of aims as finally agreed upon was:

First, the ultimate aim: To develop good citizenship by awakening and inspiring the pupils' sense of individual and collective responsibility for the success or failure of their own city as an inhabitable community.

Second, contributory aims:

To acquaint pupils with the actual "importance and significance of the elements" of their community's welfare.

To get a working knowledge of the agencies operating to secure these elements and to judge the efficiency or inefficiency of administration in the light of actual facts discovered.

To compare the elements found in our own city with those found in other communities and to discover, by such comparison, whatever excellencies or deficiencies there might be.

Another aim conceived rather as a personal aim by the instructor, was to prove the value of the project method.

After deciding upon aims the question of method naturally arose. The city, with all its potential treasure as an object of study, lay before us. How could we secure the treasure? We went about it thus:

The classes were organized into a research club with a president, vice-president, secretary, etc. The elements of community welfare that might be expected to yield the largest results to close study, were decided upon and tabulated. There were about twenty-five in all. Included in the list were government and administration, industry, transportation, public utilities, health, education, religion, housing, planning, markets, etc. Each element was assigned to from six to eight pupils who conjointly were to

submit their findings in the form of a written report. Form letters of introduction, typed on school stationery and signed by the instructor, were given to each pupil to facilitate access to busy people who might furnish information. A month was given to actual research and preparation of reports. Accuracy and thoroughness were emphasized as ideals.

After the material was all collected the problem of summarizing it into some convenient, easily accessible form was taken up. The organization now resolved itself into a publishing company. An editor-in-chief and seven associates were elected by popular vote. To them was assigned the task of editing the material and getting it ready for the printer. A board of directors was elected to look after the business end of the project. It was decided to finance the publication on the stock company basis. A budget of expense was made based on bids from printers. Shares of stock were then issued at a par value high enough to cover expenses, provided each student subscribed for at least one share. A few bought none; some more than one; the entire issue was sold. Each share entitled the holder to one vote in the company, to one booklet and to an equal share in whatever profits might accrue from the sale of extra copies. Five hundred copies were printed. Each stockholder automatically became a salesman to dispose of the surplus. The price was fixed at a rate high enough so that, provided the entire edition was sold out, each stockholder would get back in dividends the original cost of stock minus a few cents for his booklet. The edition was sold out; the money put into the common treasury and distributed equally to the stockholders on the basis of one share of dividend to each share of stock. One boy bought five shares, which cost him \$1.75. He got five booklets. Four of these he sold for eighty cents. When the dividends were returned he got as his quota on five shares \$1.35. That made him a gross income of \$2.10 and a net profit of forty cents and a booklet free. All who bought more than one share profited by the price of their extra booklets. The booklets cost single shareholders seven cents. The directors handled the financial end in a remarkably successful manner. But the editorial staff was no less successful. To condense so vast an amount of material into enough for a twenty page booklet is a task that might formerly have been considered beyond a Freshman class in High School. Conscious of their limitations they wrote in the preface to the booklet: "Mistakes no doubt have been made. If you find any just remember that the authors are High School Freshmen and that this is their first attempt at so large an undertaking."

Was there any difficulty in getting students to work? Yes, at first. There is nothing remarkable about this, however. The project was new, the method was new—everything was new. It required breaking all traditions of class activity. "Why not stick to our books like we have been used to?" was asked more than once. It is the age old story. What new ideas of progress in society, government, religion and industry have not met with a like reception!

How was inertia overcome and action secured? Mainly by an appeal based on the novelty and bigness of the thing. The instinct of the pioneer is innate. It is at its height during early adolescence. No nomal teen-age boy or girl will long ignore a challenge to be first to do some big new thing. Here was a chance to "run things" by being a voter. Officers were to be chosen; every voter was eligible and hence a potential president, or editor, or treasurer with a chance to get his name on the front page. Who could resist? So with the exception of two or three irreconcilables a unanimity seldom secured among such a cosmopolitan crowd as two hundred Freshmen was secured. Interest grew with activity until it became so intense that one could not have bought out the financial, literary, or administrative interest of a single student for twice the amount of money or effort it cost him.

Can we expect specific results and will they justify the effort. I think so. If no further results than the mere activity of the class in putting the project across are secured, it will still justify the effort. But such intensive activity cannot but be productive of further and more far-reaching results. Knowledge of duty intensifies consciousness of responsibility. Responsibility, in the majority of cases, is a sobering influence that tends toward sanity of action. Facility of action depends largely upon experience. Hence, in the natural course of events, sane civic action must be encouraged on the part of these pupils when they are called upon to exercise responsibility, not as a school project, but, in the light of the knowledge and experience gained in school, in actual situations in very real life. In the light of the aims with which we started I think we can justly expect certain definite results such as:

First, A more intimate knowledge of the "Old Home Town" with a consequently increased interest and pride in and heightened respect for its traditions and activities.

Second, Increased knowledge of the functions of enfranchisement and greater confidence and facility in their exercise, e. g., voting, nominations, elections, organization, etc.

Third, Self-reliance in meeting people of affairs and greater insight into methods of securing first hand information.

Fourth, Some knowledge of business and finance.

Fifth, Appreciation of the value of co-operation to the success of common undertakings, and

Sixth, To realize our ultimate aim to develop a better type of citizenship. All aims, methods and minor results must be as means to this end for in it and it only do they have their excuse for existence.

"German War Finance" is discussed by Fred Rogers Fairchild in the *American Economic Review* for June. The article by Mr. Fairchild is based on "Les Finances de Guerre de l' Allemagne," by Charles Rist, of the Faculty of Law of the University of Paris, but includes as well, some original information.

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

The July and August *Harper's* have installments of a most interesting account of ("Meandering where flows the Meander") of present-day Turkey, by Lady Kennard, who has known these regions intimately for many years, her father who was in the English Diplomatic service, having been stationed here.

The *Yale Review* for July has an unusual number of articles of interest to historians. Walter Lippman's "Second Best Statesmen" is one of these. After a most interesting introduction in which he discusses the beginnings of the instinct of Democracy manifested by human-kind, he goes on to say: "by a sleight-of-hand, popular government embraced a mythology. Beginning with a theory based on the vision of a very simple village community where everyone knew everyone else's character and affairs, and inspired by a high sense of human equality, the democrat found himself in an unmanageable civilization. No man's wisdom seemed great enough for the task. A somewhat more omnipotent wisdom was necessary. . . . Then came the doctrine of interests to relieve the tension. . . . And then because we all have a tendency to worship whatever is powerful and certain the cult of instinct was taken up by 19th century liberalism . . . and the cult of instinct has turned out to be an illusion."

Another thoughtful article in the same magazine is "The Eclipse of Europe," by Francis W. Hirst, an Englishman's interpretation of that mess called "Welt-politik." Mr. Hirst's treatment of the financial situation shows a knowledge of facts, regardless of what one may think as to the conclusions he draws from these facts. He says: "Almost all European budgets show a gaping void between revenue and expenditure which cannot be filled by taxes or loans. . . . Of the new states Czechoslovakia is the only one that has put its money on anything like a decent footing and the only one whose money is worth more than it was a year ago. . . . At least one valuable piece of work has been accomplished at Genoa. . . . the report of the Finance Committee. . . . The Report holds that a stabilization of European currencies is essential to the reconstruction of Europe, that the banks of issue should be free from all political pressure; that these central banks should co-operate . . . that all European currency should be based on a common standard and that this standard must be gold. So long as there is a deficiency in the annual budget of a state met by the creation of fiduciary money or bank credits, no currency reform is possible, and no approach to the establishment of a gold standard can be made."

"The End of Race Migrations," by Henry F. Osborne, also in this issue, gives an outline of the origin of the first and second great phase of population movements which together cover almost the whole period of the recorded history of the human race.

In conclusion Mr. Osborne says: "The control of population will be one of the greatest questions of the next few generations. . . . Every advance in hygiene, sanitation and public health which tends to extend the average span of life adds to the gravity of the problem. . . . The peace of the world can not be assured until some effective check is placed on wars for lands or products of land; the property of the world cannot be assured until there is a general denial of the right of any nation with an excessive increase of population to seek relief by sending its surplus nationals abroad. . . . It is time to assert the *duty* of self-determination. Each nation must be compelled to work out its own population problems without threatening the well-being of other nations that are more intelligent or more self-controlled."

In the September *Review of Reviews*, in an article entitled "Europe's Debt Tangle and America's Duty," Mr. Frank H. Simonds says: "We have no responsibility for the present situation and no obligation; when every other nation is following its own legitimate but national self-interest, to sacrifice ours. Least of all is there any reason why we should be stampeded into unreasoning prodigality by any such manœuvre as the Balfour note."

In the same magazine is an interesting account of "Brazil and Its Centenary," by Roy H. Nash, which considers the public health, and reclamation of lands in addition to a brief history of our neighbor, and concludes by saying: "There is a New Brazil and in these two decades of the 20th century she has moved farther in the direction of larger and finer life for the average man, than in the four hundred years that went before. If certain basic problems of democracy like public education have been neglected, charge it to the Republic's youth. . . . She has solved one great problem of a modern democracy which United States has found well-nigh insoluble: with a population where all colors from white to black freely intermingle, Brazil knows no color problem and is torn by no race hatred."

In a sympathetic sketch, entitled "Senator Lodge a Massachusetts Institution" (*World's Work* for September), Mark Sullivan writes: "The pride that Massachusetts has in Lodge has a broader base than merely his present elevation in the Senate or in the length of his services there. . . . The clue to the qualities that distinguish Lodge is to be found in his book, 'Early Memories,' which reflects a boyishly eager attraction toward men like Sumner, Howells, Holmes, Whittier, Longfellow, Lowell, all that was finest or most vital in politics, art or scholarship of the New England of a generation ago. A person whose boyish enthusiasm took this turn and who sought and maintained their associations . . . is far above the average of the Senate."

In *Current Opinion* for August, General Emil Taufflieb, Senator of France from Strassburg, gives an earnest defense and explanation of French Militarism.

Henry Fairfield Osborn gives a summary of the results of the Third Arctic Expedition of the past year, in his article "Proving Asia the Mother of Continents" in the September *Asia*, an article which belongs to historians as well as to geologists.

"Aspects of Rural Japan," by Walter Weston in the September number of the *National Geographic Magazine*, has some beautiful illustrations, showing the fast disappearing picturesqueness of the Japanese.

V. B. Metta's article on "Ancient Hindu Education" (August *Forum*), is full of interesting suggestions to modern educators for "The ancient Hindu educationists did not create a system of education and then enmesh all their pupils in it indiscriminately. They all attached a great deal of importance to individuality, which . . . according to them is composed of (a) the soul's past; (b) heredity; (c) surroundings, and (d) race. After understanding their pupils individually as well as they could, they then tried to develop them, each according to the bent of his own nature. . . . The Hindus attach great importance to the capacity for mental concentration. . . . The Hindu *gurie* (teacher) commanded implicit obedience and admiration from his pupils by his knowledge, wisdom and sanctity. In order to educate the young men placed in his charge, he took into consideration their (a) emotional capacity; (b) formed habits and associations; and (c) . . . nature . . . The Hindus never believed that boys can become pious by being taught the dogmas of a religion at school. . . . Religion has to be lived and not learned as a creed if it is really to influence our thoughts and actions. . . . The Hindus have always considered that the man who is master of himself is more capable of being religious than the man whose impulses and desires are imbroiled."

Sir John Willison gives the reader a most interesting analysis of the British Empire of this day, in his article, "Canada in the Empire," in the July *Nineteenth Century*, and his general hopefulness as well as his belief in the Mother Country are shown in his concluding words: "If the Empire holds together the population of the Dominion will steadily increase, the Commonwealth become more powerful, and the dignity of British citizenship will be enhanced from generation to generation. . . . The machinery for co-operation for common interests will evolve as the need arises. . . . In these days the power and majesty of the Empire do not make the old appeal to men's hearts and emotions. The things written deeply in the history of Britain that we most value are the love of truth, the tradition that a man must keep his word, the obligation that a nation must keep its engagements. Nowhere in modern British history has Britain betrayed an ally, or treated a foe ungenerously, or provoked war among nations."

Rev. Martin J. Scott, S. J., thinks, in his article "What Ails the World?" (*North American Review* for September, the second in the series on World Restora-

tion) that "Man wants justice"—but generally he wants it for himself. Justice requires that a man or nation subordinate personal or national advantages to right and truth. That means frequently the sacrifice of personal or national interests. . . . In the council of nations, each government is inclined to seek its own interests. Hence only a partial or temporary agreement may be affected. But compromise never cures. It simply covers. What will cure Justice."—But to attain justice is beyond man's power if he be not aided by religion, and by sacramental religion of the Catholic Church.

"British Students of Padua," by Horatio Brown in the July *Quarterly Review*, is a review of Italian education in the Middle Ages, as well as an account of the Englishmen in residence there.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
Industrial History of the United States. By Louis Ray Wells. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922. 584 pp.

The recent emphasis upon economic history is now bearing fruit in the production of a growing list of textbooks upon the industrial life of our nation. In this book the obvious need for a text designed chiefly for high school students has been met. The author has constantly sought to stress the influence of three factors: centuries of a constantly moving frontier, the promise of inexhaustible natural resources, and the effect of bringing the people together after the frontier line has disappeared and the resources have been appropriated. In the introduction the author states that he has tried to avoid encumbering the text with statistics but that "Emphasis has been put upon the way in which things have been done rather than the amount done." This is the keynote of the treatment and while it is theoretically sound, economic history must be partially told with statistics and a knowledge of their use cannot be imparted too early. Such statistics can be made clearer by graphs or pictographs of which no use whatsoever is made. On the other hand the causes and effects have been soundly diagnosed and the treatment of controversial subjects is extremely healthy and sane. Examples of this are the handling of the Nonpartisan League and of the whole history of labor unions.

The writing of American economic history is still in too experimental a stage for one to be over-critical about the allotment of space to periods and subjects. Following the new tendencies less than one-sixth of the text is devoted to the colonial and about one half to the period up to the Civil War. This has necessitated a somewhat meagre treatment of many subjects, including the economic effect of the Revolution, the development of transportation before the 1860, and the history of the merchant marine. The great Commercial Revolution is hardly mentioned. Inasmuch as a great deal which comes later rests upon

conditions and practices of earlier times which may be more readily weighed and recounted, there is much to be said for a fuller exposition of the colonial and formative years. At the same time no effort has been made to deal as a whole with the effect of the World War. While it is difficult to appraise accurately at this close range the economic effects of the conflict they have been so stupendous that it is possible to point out some of the most important, at least as they are shown in legislative action. Some attention also might well have been given to the economic background of American imperialism. The style, while not flowing, is clear and kept within the grasp of the group for which the book is intended and many of the facts are stated in an original and refreshing manner.

Aids to students and teachers at the conclusion of each chapter include a list of general references citing pages but without dates of publication, a bibliography for special topics, a list of questions which are largely aimed to review the material in the chapter, and some suggested questions for debate. There are 76 pictures well chosen but unevenly distributed and fifteen maps in black and white. More of the latter with graphs could well have been used. The book as a whole is well done and by all odds the best adapted to high school use which has yet appeared.

HAROLD U. FAULKNER.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The British Empire: A Short History. By J. P. Bulkeley. Oxford University Press, 1921. x, 228 pp.

The Expansion of Britain from the Age of the Discoveries: A Geographical History. By W. R. Kermack. Oxford University Press, London, 1922. 112 pp.

An increasing number of books, of varying scope and value, on the history of British expansion bear witness to the growing interest in the British Empire. Mr. Bulkeley's volume is a brief manual, "intended for class-room use in secondary or continuation schools, as well as for any teachers or general readers who require an introductory history of the British Empire." The first four chapters contain a brief narrative account of colonial expansion from ancient to modern times and show, in some important matters, the relation of English to British imperial history. Succeeding chapters outline the development of British dominion in North America, Australia, India and South Africa, and a concluding chapter passes in summary review the growth of the modern French, Russian, German, Italian, Japanese and American colonial empires and characterizes modern British imperialism, showing its compatibility with the nationalism and autonomy of the Dominions and indicating the principal constitutional problems now confronting the British Empire. Brief bibliographies are appended to the several chapters. Despite some errors in statements of fact and in dates this little volume should prove helpful to teachers and students of English history in

secondary schools, for it emphasizes the cardinal truth that the history of the Empire is inextricably interwoven with the history of modern England. Throughout Mr. Bulkeley lays stress upon geographic factors, as does Mr. Kermack in his sketch of British expansion. The latter, however, does little more than this, and his booklet is of no value for political, economic or social conditions. Both authors show the influence of the writings of Sir Charles Lucas, and neither, it may be added, questions the beneficence of British imperialism.

R. L. SCHUYLER.

Columbia University.

James K. Polk: A Political Biography. By Eugene Irving McCormac. University of California Press, Berkeley, California, 1922. 746 pp.

This volume is a "full-length" portrait of the President in whose term of office the United States admitted Texas to the Union, settled the Oregon question, and conquered California and New Mexico. The older view of the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War, derived from anti-slavery and Whig sources, has been disintegrating through the destructive work of modern critical historical study: one is not surprised therefore to find that the conclusions reached by Justin H. Smith in his definitive work *The War with Mexico* are closely paralleled in this independent work of McCormac's; though McCormac takes on the whole a more favorable view of Polk himself. It will be strange indeed if the children of the next generation shall still be taught the ancient errors, when historians of different origin and traditions reach similar conclusions!

Professor McCormac has diligently examined the Polk Papers and other collections in the Library of Congress and has produced a serviceable book. He has devoted much attention to Polk's earlier political life, and this part of the book throws much light on important phases of the history of Tennessee in the Jackson period—the relations of Polk and Bell, the split in the Jackson ranks, and the candidacy of Hugh Lawson White, for example. There are very interesting chapters on the nomination of Polk, the campaign, and Polk's ideas as to the Presidential office as manifested in his actions and in the principles which he confided to his *Diary*. The latter part of the volume of course deals with the great events of Polk's Presidency.

Professor McCormac demonstrates clearly that the "conspiracy" or "intrigue" alleged by Benton and by Gideon Welles to have been formed to overthrow Van Buren amounted, so far as Jackson and Polk were concerned, to an effort to nominate Polk only after it had become clear Van Buren could not receive the necessary two-thirds vote at the Baltimore Convention, or, if nominated could not be elected: and that Jackson so far from being ignorant of what was going on, was directing it. In several instances Professor McCormac shows the partisan errors of von Holst.

One must add, with regret, that the typographical

errors are numerous, particularly in the case of proper names. The substitution on page 364, of the word "annexation" for "independence" entirely distorts the meaning of a sentence in Buchanan's letter of June 15, 1845, to A. J. Donelson. ST. G. L. S.

The Enchanted Past. By Jeannette Rector Hodgdon. Ginn and Company, New York, 1922. vii, 225 pp. 88 cents.

A new note, a departure from the usual content and style of children's books, a striking emphasis, marks this little volume. In her Foreword the author convincingly sets forth her purpose, which is to foster in children the feeling of man's common brotherhood, manifested by common impulses and aims that have animated the long, toiling, progressing throng from earliest times, here pictured in folklore, proverbs and art, rather than in conquest. The keynote is that of progress, a slow but sure uplift.

Pursuing the conception of the relationship of all mankind, "irrespective of race, color or creed," Mrs. Hodgdon carries her readers away from the highway so well trodden through Europe, into strange paths penetrating the East, where have dwelt the Hindus, the Egyptians, the Chinese, the Hebrews, those elusive brothers, whose history and religion she presents through bits gleaned from their own literature.

The entire work, executed with scholarly carefulness and accuracy, possesses an attractive literary style, so that for the adult it is a pleasant companion. To enjoy its pages, to sympathize with its objects, well promoted by wisely selected material, is no difficult task, but exactly to estimate its place in juvenile literature is perhaps not so simple. Nevertheless *The Enchanted Past* should serve a useful purpose as a supplementary history text, since it furnishes for children, in convenient form, much that could otherwise be found, if at all, only after laborious research. Thus it puts in the way of young people a new type of reading matter, and should stimulate writers of children's books to delve more understandingly into the fascinating lore of the past of distant peoples, so as to present its treasures to youth in ever better, more skilful ways, so that the fine purpose outlined by Mrs. Hodgdon may more and more be fulfilled.

LENA C. VAN BIBBER.

Maryland State Normal School.

American Economic Life. By Henry Reed Burch. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1921. 533 pp.

As the author states in his preface, "this book is a restatement of *Elements of Economics* in a somewhat revised and improved form," "an attempt to present in problem form the more important phases of American economic life." In other words, it is not an abstract study of economic principles, but rather an attempt to show how these principles apply to the development of our own national life.

There is a distinct effort on the part of the author to teach a lesson as well as to study our economic life from a scientific viewpoint. He repeatedly

emphasizes the importance of "economic welfare" as the true goal of economic life, and undertakes to show how events in our history have helped or hindered the attainment of this goal.

The double nature of the task involved in the book makes it more difficult to write than a simple treatise on economic theory or on the economic history of America. In several respects this difficult task has been well done. The style is direct, clear and simple. The subject matter is well chosen and interesting. The outlines preceding each chapter, as well as in the margin of the text, the lists of questions and problems at the ends of chapters, and the references for supplementary reading add to the clearness and usefulness of the book for secondary school pupils.

At certain points the author's statements are open to criticism as to accuracy. For example, in speaking of the effect of the English Navigation Acts on colonial shipbuilding, he says "these acts struck a hard blow at a rising American industry." An examination of such well-known authorities as Day and Bogart, not to mention the text of the Acts, would have prevented this reversal of the facts. Colonial ships were included under the term "English ships" in the acts and because ships could be built in the colonies much cheaper than in England, many English merchants used ships built here and thus increased the demand for colonial ships, thereby encouraging the industry. Again, the statement of the Theory of Malthus fails to bring out the fact that Malthus noted the checks which operate to prevent undue growth of population. In the chapter on Value and Price this statement occurs: "In other words, goods are scarce because industrial effort or labor is necessary to their production." No mention is made of other possible causes of scarcity. Such a half truth may easily give a wrong impression to the pupil.

Other statements that seem open to criticism are the definition of "marginal utility" on page 319 and the classification of monopolies on page 327. The chief criticism in most cases is that, in order to emphasize a particular point under discussion, the author makes a statement that is a "half truth" and fails to tell the reader that it is only a "half truth." This is dangerous, especially with pupils who are just beginning the study of economics.

As a whole, the book accomplishes what the author states as his purpose in the preface. In form, it is well suited for secondary school use; it is admirably written and, though generally accurate in statements of fact, should be used as a text, with such care that the pupil will not get wrong impressions from some statements which are only "half truths."

WINTHROP TIRRELL.

High School of Commerce, Boston.

Problems in American Democracy. By Thames Ross Williamson. D. C. Heath and Company, New York, 1922. xvi, 567 pp.

Problems of American Democracy. By Henry Reed Burch and S. Howard Patterson. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922. x, 601 pp.

Both of these texts are evidently intended for use in the last year of the senior high school, often called the 12th grade. Their practically identical titles are doubtless inspired by the report of the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies in Secondary Schools. (Bulletin 28, 1916, Bureau of Education.) It is a hopeful sign to see textbook writers and publishers moving in the direction of some standardization of our courses in the social studies, for we have wandered too long at random in our efforts to make the teaching of the social studies useful.

Mr. Williamson is an assistant professor of economics and sociology at Smith College, and in the rather unusually long list of persons who assisted him in the preparation of his book he mentions no secondary school teacher or administrative officer. While Mr. Patterson is now a member of a university faculty, he was previously a secondary school teacher, and his colleague, Mr. Burch has long been a teacher in the West Philadelphia High School for Boys. The second of the two works is therefore primarily an outgrowth of teaching experience and the former of special scholarship, however these two sources of equipment may overlap.

Mr. Williamson divides his text into five parts, entitled: Foundations of American Democracy, American Economic Problems, American Social Problems, American Political Problems, The Mechanism of Government. His first part is mainly historical and might be unnecessary if the program from which he takes his title were followed, for then the course for which his text is written would be immediately preceded by a course in American history. His second part contains twelve chapters, one third of which deal with socialism, which seems a rather large proportion. His fourth part places the tariff, credit and banking, and taxation among political instead of economic problems. The volume includes an excellent bibliography of really helpful works in history, sociology, economics, and government; an appendix containing the constitution of the United States, but none for a state; and at the end of each chapter a number of helps for teachers—questions on the text, required readings, questions on the required readings, topics for investigation and report, and topics for classroom discussion. Frequent reference is made to the author's *Readings in American Democracy*.

Messrs. Burch and Patterson offer a slightly larger book with longer chapters and no division into parts. Their text is enlivened by about two score well-chosen illustrations. The argument of the book runs from a few chapters of environmental background, through political organization of the community to a consideration of problems, thus reversing the order followed by Mr. Williamson. Government does not receive, however, a very large share of the total discussion. This is natural now when the teaching of government is almost wholly neglected in the schools, and author and publisher must cater to the demand regardless of their opinions and preferences. This volume seems to contain a much more concrete dis-

cussion than the other, more than three-fifths of the book being made up of chapters each of which takes up a particular problem for definite presentation. It also contains the constitution of the United States, but not that of any state. It does not contain a bibliography, but at the end of each chapter is to be found a somewhat briefer set of questions, topics for discussion, and references to sources of information, than Mr. Williamson's book provides, although it may be that the briefer lists still contain more citations than the average teacher is able to use.

D. G.

BOOK NOTES.

It is the purpose of the University of London Intermediate Source-Books of History to provide a body of original materials on English history from the period of the Roman Occupation to the World War, primarily intended for University students but also meant to be useful to textbook writers and general readers. The three volumes thus far issued provide very valuable collections of extracts from contemporary documents a large proportion of which have never been published, and the editing is on the whole very competently done. The first, *Illustrations of Chaucer's England*, edited by Miss Dorothy Hughes, appeared in 1918. Miss Isabel D. Thornley's *England under the Yorkists, 1460-1485* (Longmans' Green & Co., London and New York, 1920; 280 pp., \$3.25), after an admirable "Brief Account of the Sources" presents five groups of materials devoted respectively to Political, Constitutional, Ecclesiastical, Economic and Social, and Ireland. All foreign-language documents are translated into English, though fifteenth century English is given in its original form. It is a pity that only about fifty pages are devoted to economic and social aspects of the period, agriculture being omitted, while the political alone gets 135 pages. It is especially fortunate that a full and excellent index is provided. Miss Jessie H. Flemming's *England under the Lancastrians* (1921; 301 pp., \$4.00) is identical in plan and similar in treatment. Other volumes, including those on the period before the Norman Conquest and the period of Elizabeth, are announced for early publication.

In three lectures the Chairman of the Plymouth Tercentenary Celebration Committee retells the story of the Pilgrims. (*Plymouth and the Pilgrims*, By Arthur Lord. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1920, 178 pp.) He has a hard time starting, the first tenth dealing with the Northmen, DeSoto, Jean Ribaut, *et cetera*, and it cannot be said that he puts his heroes in any new light. He says that the Mayflower Compact would have been drawn up even if they had landed within the territorial limits of their patent. He believes that the Pilgrims were never attacked because they were so well prepared and because of treaties with the Indians; their distance from the French frontier was probably more important. He traces many ideas to the Pilgrims' experience in

Holland, showing here the influence of Douglas Campbell. He forgets to notice the chief reason for the failure of communism,—the open land; and he praises Bradford and his colleagues for actually collecting evidence and trying undesirable citizens before deporting them. As a good summary of Pilgrim history interspersed with moral reflections this little book can be recommended.—DIXON RYAN FOX.

The teacher of history and civics who would keep up with demands of the day in his field must give some attention to the progress of natural science. Two recent books that will help him are John Mills's *Within the Atom* (Van Nostrand Co., New York, 1921; 214 pp., \$2.00), and *The New World of Science* (Century Co., New York, 1920; 443 pp., \$3.00), edited by Robert M. Yerkes. The latter is made up of twenty-four chapters by specialists describing the progress and contributions of their respective fields—physics, chemistry, geology and geography, engineering, biology and medicine, and psychology—during the World War. This research and advance is necessarily of prime importance in connection with the arts and industries of peace, and the volume, which belongs to the "Century New World Series" is much more than a "war book." Mr. Mills, an able physicist and engineer with a gift for popular exposition, undertakes the very difficult task of presenting an authoritative but readable account of present theories regarding atomic structure and the nature of matter and energy. With the aid of an easy and colloquial style and thirty-six pictorial illustrations, the author succeeds in his purpose, assuming no previous knowledge on the part of the reader of electricity, chemistry, or mechanics. A book so filled with valuable information might well be used for reference as well as for reading, but no index is provided. There is a useful glossary.

The views of a liberal and thoughtful employer are presented in *Labor's Crisis*, by Sigmund Mendelsohn (Macmillan Co., New York, 1920; 171 pp., \$1.50). It is a suggestive study based upon wide practical experience and extensive reading.

Handbook of Municipal Government (192 pp.) and *Assets of the Ideal City* (177 pp.), by Charles M. Fassett (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1922), were evidently written to popularize progressive thought on city government and problems rather than to add to the present store of information. The author, who is now a specialist in municipal government in the University of Kansas, and has been mayor of Spokane, is evidently well read in the best literature and able not only to select his material well but to express himself clearly and forcefully. The general reader who wishes to secure a brief introduction to the field will find these volumes satisfactory, and if he wishes to read further he will find at the end of each volume a well selected and classified bibliography.—E. D.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Apr. 29, 1922 to Aug. 26, 1922

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

AMERICAN HISTORY.

Adams, Randolph G. Political ideas of the American Revolution. Durham, N. C.: Trinity Coll. Press. 207 pp. (13 p. bibl.) \$2.00.

Albright, George L. Official Explorations for Pacific railroads, 1853-55. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. 187 pp. (10 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Andrews, Charles L. The Story of Sitka. Seattle, Wash.: [Author] 1806 E. 73rd st. 108 pp. \$1.50.

Bassett, John S., editor. Major Howell Tatum's journal . . . engineer, (1814) to General Jackson. Northampton, Mass.: Smith College. 138 pp.

Bolton, Herbert E. The Spanish Borderlands; a chronicle of old Florida and the southwest. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 320 pp. (6 p. bibl.)

Buell, Raymond L. The Washington Conference. N. Y.: Appleton. 461 pp. \$3.00.

Cabot, Mary R., editor. Annals of Brattleboro, 1681-1895. In 2 vols. Brattleboro, Vt.: E. L. Hildreth & Co. 1152 pp. \$15.00.

Chancellor, William E. History and government of the United States . . . for evening school students. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 120 pp. (1 p. bibl.) 60c.

Comstock, A., and Mueller, H. R. State taxation of personal incomes, by Comstock. The Whig party in Pennsylvania, by Mueller, N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 246, 271 pp. (2, 16 p. bibl.) \$6.00.

Farrand, Max. The fathers of the Constitution; a chronicle of the establishment of the Union. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 246 pp. 4 p. bibl.

Gordy, Wilbur F. History of the United States. Revised Edition. N. Y.: Scribner. 600 pp. \$1.60.

Greene, Evarts B. Foundations of American Nationality. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 654 pp. (25 p. bibl.) \$2.60.

Harrington, Mark R. Cherokee and earlier remains on the upper Tennessee River. N. Y.: Museum of the Am. Indian, Heyl Foundation. 321 pp. \$4.50.

Henry, Alexander. Alexander Henry's travels and adventures in the years 1760-1776. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co. 340 pp.

Holliday, Carl. Woman's life in colonial days. Boston: Cornhill Pub. Co. 319 pp. \$2.50.

Howard, Daniel and Brown, S. J. The United States; its history, government and institutions. N. Y.: Appleton. 344 pp. \$1.50.

Howland, Howard J. Theodore Roosevelt and his times; a chronicle of the progressive movement. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 289 pp. (2 p. bibl.)

Jennings, Walter W. The American Embargo, 1807-1809. Iowa City, Ia.: Univ. of Iowa. 242 pp. (6½ p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Johnson, Allen. Jefferson and his colleagues; a chronicle of the Virginia dynasty. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 343 pp. (10 p. bibl.)

Kenilworth, Ill., New Trier High School. How the Pilgrim spirit came to Illinois; a pageant. Kenilworth, Ill. [Author] 36 pp. 50c.

Knox, Dudley W. The eclipse of American sea-power [discusses effect of agreement to limit naval armaments]. N. Y.: Am. Army and Navy Journal. 140 pp. \$1.50.

Konkle, Burton A. George Bryan and the Constitution of Pennsylvania, 1731-1791. Phila.: W. J. Campbell, 1731 Chestnut st. 381 pp. \$4.00.

Lawrence, Robert M. Old Park St. and its vicinity [Boston]. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 172 pp. \$3.00.

Lawson, Leonard A. The relation of the British policy to the declaration of the Monroe doctrine. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 153 pp. (3 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Lawson McGhee Library, Knoxville, Tenn. Calvin Morgan McClung historical collection of books, manuscripts, pamphlets, pictures, and maps relating to early western travel, and the history and genealogy of Tennessee and other Southern States. Knoxville, Tenn.: Knoxville Litho. Co. 102 pp.

Lovell, Louise Lewis. Israel Angell, colonel of the 2d Rhode Island regiment [1777-1781]. N. Y.: Putnam. 360 pp. Privately printed. \$5.00.

Mayers, Lewis. The federal service; a study of the system of personnel administration of the United States government. N. Y.: Appleton. 607 pp. \$5.00.

Meeker, Ezra. Seventy years of progress in Washington [State]. Seattle, Wash. [Author] Congress Hotel. 381-51 pp. \$5.00.

Moorehead, Warren. The Cahokia mounds. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 56 pp. 25c.

Morgan, Lewis H. Leagues of the Ho-de-no-sau-nee of Iroquois [2 vols. in 1]. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. \$7.50.

Mueller, Henry. The Whig party in Pennsylvania. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 271 pp. (16½ p. bibl.) \$2.75.

Mulford, Uri. Pioneer days and later times in Corning and vicinity; 1789-1920. Corning N. Y.: [Author]. 528 pp. \$6.00.

Muzzey, David S. The United States of America; 1. Through the Civil War. Boston: Ginn & Co. 621 pp. (25 p. bibl.) \$8.00.

New York, State Historian. The records of Ballston Spa, Saratoga County, N. Y. Albany, N. Y.: The Univ. of the State of N. Y. 11 pp.

Nichols, Philip. Taxation in Massachusetts. Boston. Financial Pub. Co. 800 pp. \$10.00.

Oberholtzer, Ellis P. A history of the United States since the Civil War. In 5 vols. Vol 2; 1868-1872. N. Y.: Macmillan. 649 pp. \$4.00.

Odate, Gyogu. Japan's financial relations with the United States. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 136 pp. \$1.25.

Parsons, Elsie W. C. American Indian life. N. Y.: Huebsch. 419 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$10.00.

Quaife, M. M., editor. Fort Wayne in 1790; journal of Henry Hay. Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs, Merrill. 70 pp. 50c.

Schroeder, Seaton. A half-century of naval service. N. Y.: Appleton. 443 pp. \$4.00.

Seymour, Charles. Woodrow Wilson and the World War. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 382 pp. (5 p. bibl.)

Sibley, Dr. John. A report from Natchitoches in 1807. N. Y.: Museum of the A. Indian, Heyl Foundation. 102 pp.

Slosson, Edwin E. The American spirit in Education; a chronicle of great teachers. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 309 pp. (3 p. bibl.)

Stephenson, Nathaniel W. Texas and the Mexican War; a chronicle of the winning of the Southwest. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 273 pp. (2 p. bibl.)

Sullivan, Mark. The great adventure at Washington; the story of the Conference. N. Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co. 290 pp. \$2.50.

Swanton, John R. Early history of the Creek Indians and their neighbors. Wash., D. C.: Smithsonian Inst., Govt. Pr. Office; Supt. of Docs. 492 pp. (5½ p. bibl.)

Tapley, Silvester H. The Province Galley of Massachusetts Bay, 1694-1716. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 39 pp. \$1.00.

Thomson, Holland. The age of invention; a chronicle of mechanical conquest. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 267 pp. (7 p. bibl.)

Tokutomi, Ichiyo. Japanese-American relations. N. Y.: Macmillan. 207 pp. \$1.50.

Van Tyne, Claude H. The causes of the war of independence; being the 1st volume of a history of the founding of the American republic. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 499 pp. \$5.00.

Warren, Charles. The Supreme Court in United States History; in 3 vols. Vol. 1, 1789-1821; Vol. 2, 1821-1855; Vol. 3, 1855-1918. Boston: Little, Brown, 540, 550, 532 pp. (1½, 1½, 1½ p. bibl.) \$18.00 set.

Wells, Louis R. Industrial history of the United States. N. Y.: Macmillan. 584 pp. \$2.00.

Wood, William C. H. Captains of the civil war; a chronicle of the blue and the gray. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 424 pp.

Woodburn, James A. and Moran, Thos. F. The makers of America. N. Y.: Longmans, Green, 308 pp. 96c.

Wrong, George M. Washington and his comrades in arms; a chronicle of the war of independence. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 295 pp. (4 p. bibl.)

ANCIENT HISTORY

Ahl, Augustus W. Outline of Persian history. N. Y.: Lemcke & Buechner. 129 pp. \$1.75.

British Museum. Cuneiform texts from Babylonian tablets, etc., in the British Museum. Pt. 36. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. \$8.00.

Casson, Stanley. Ancient Greece; a study. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 96 pp. \$1.00.

Clay, Albert T. A Hebrew deluge story in cuneiform. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 86 pp. \$1.75.

Goldenweiser, Alexander A. Early civilization. N. Y.: Knopf. 428 pp. \$5.00.

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